



Instituto Tecnológico de Aeronáutica
Mestrado Profissional em Engenharia Aeronáutica

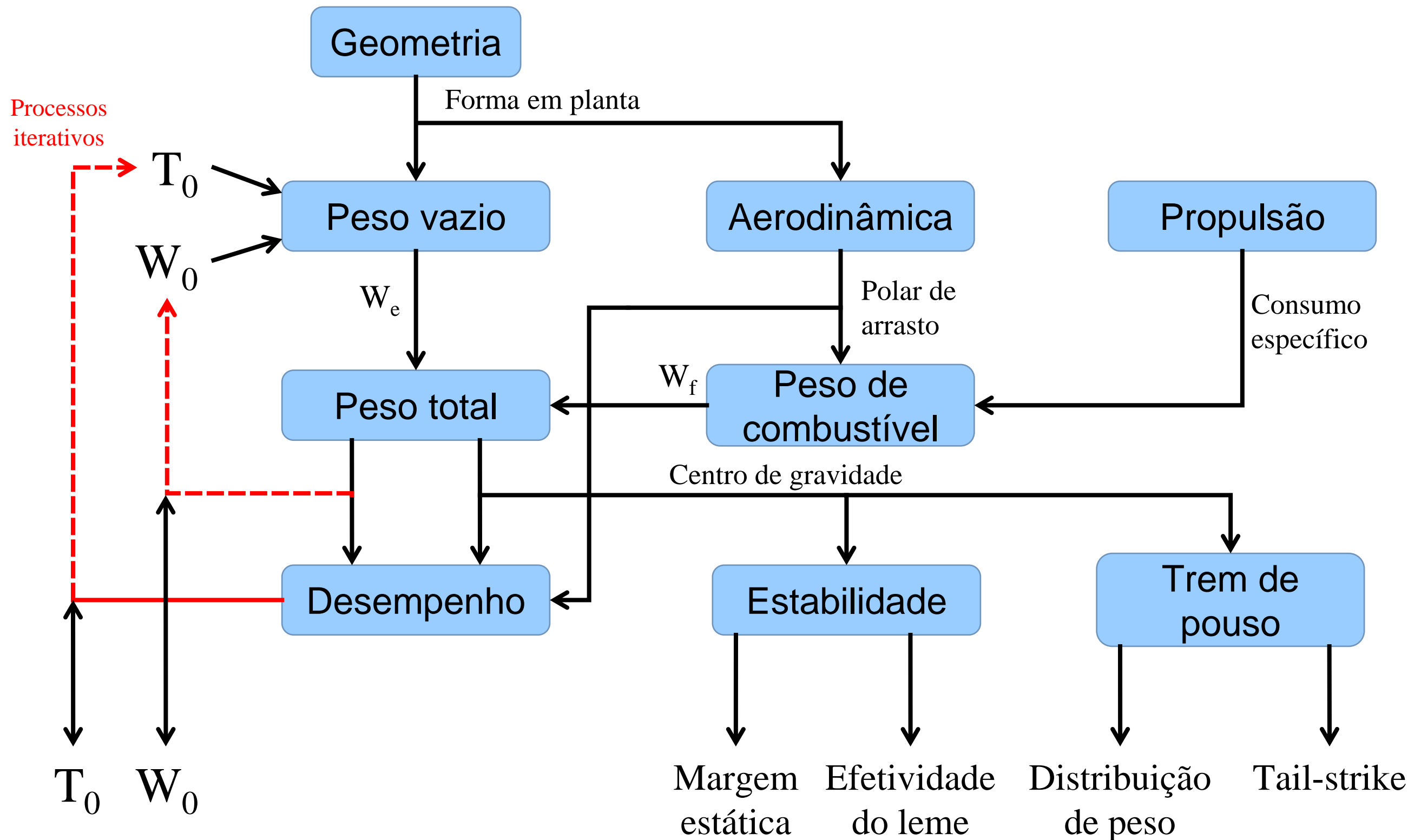
AP-701

Fundamentos do Projeto de Aeronaves

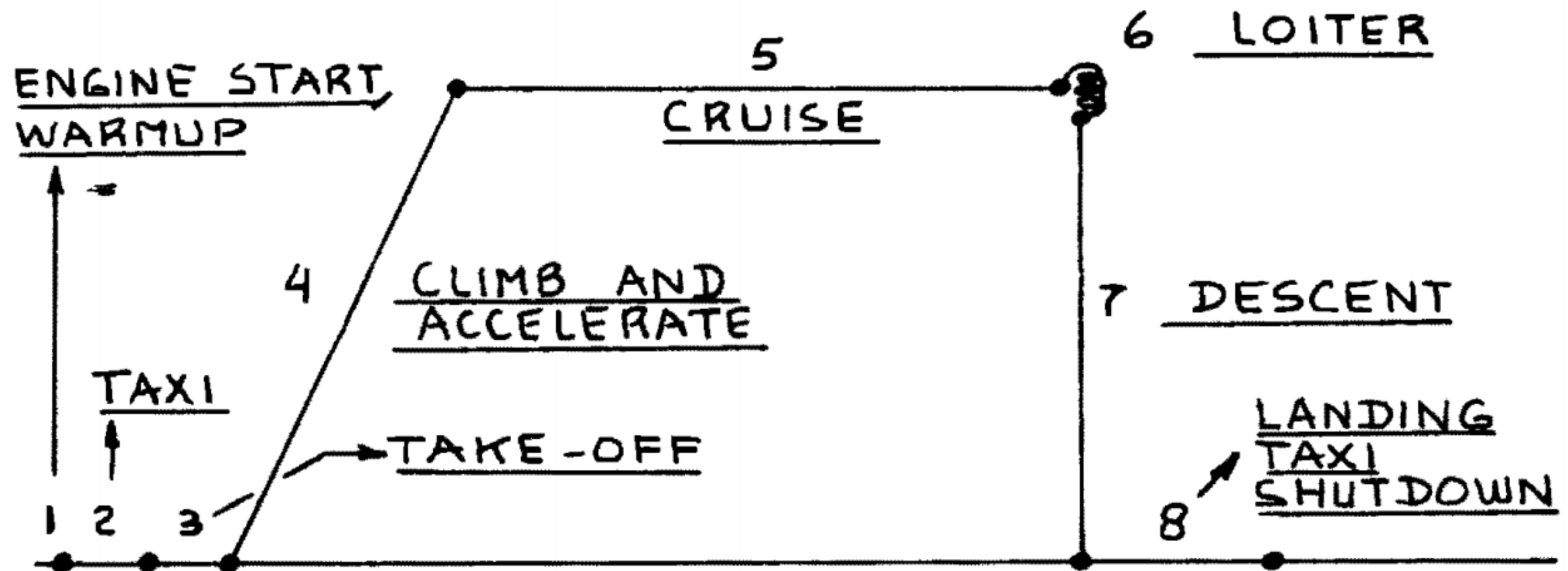
Aula 5 – Desempenho

Cap. Ney Sêcco

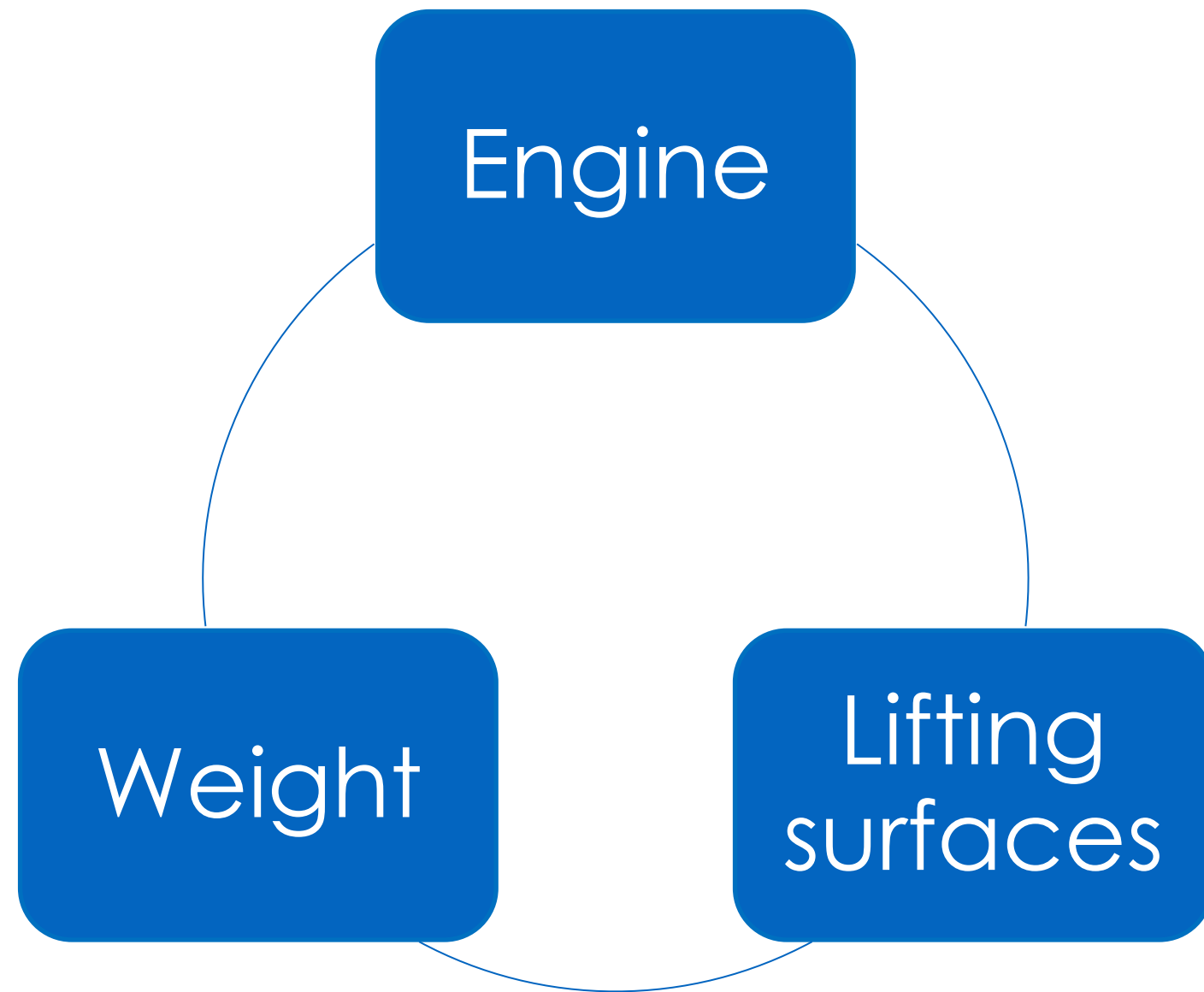
Fluxo de análise



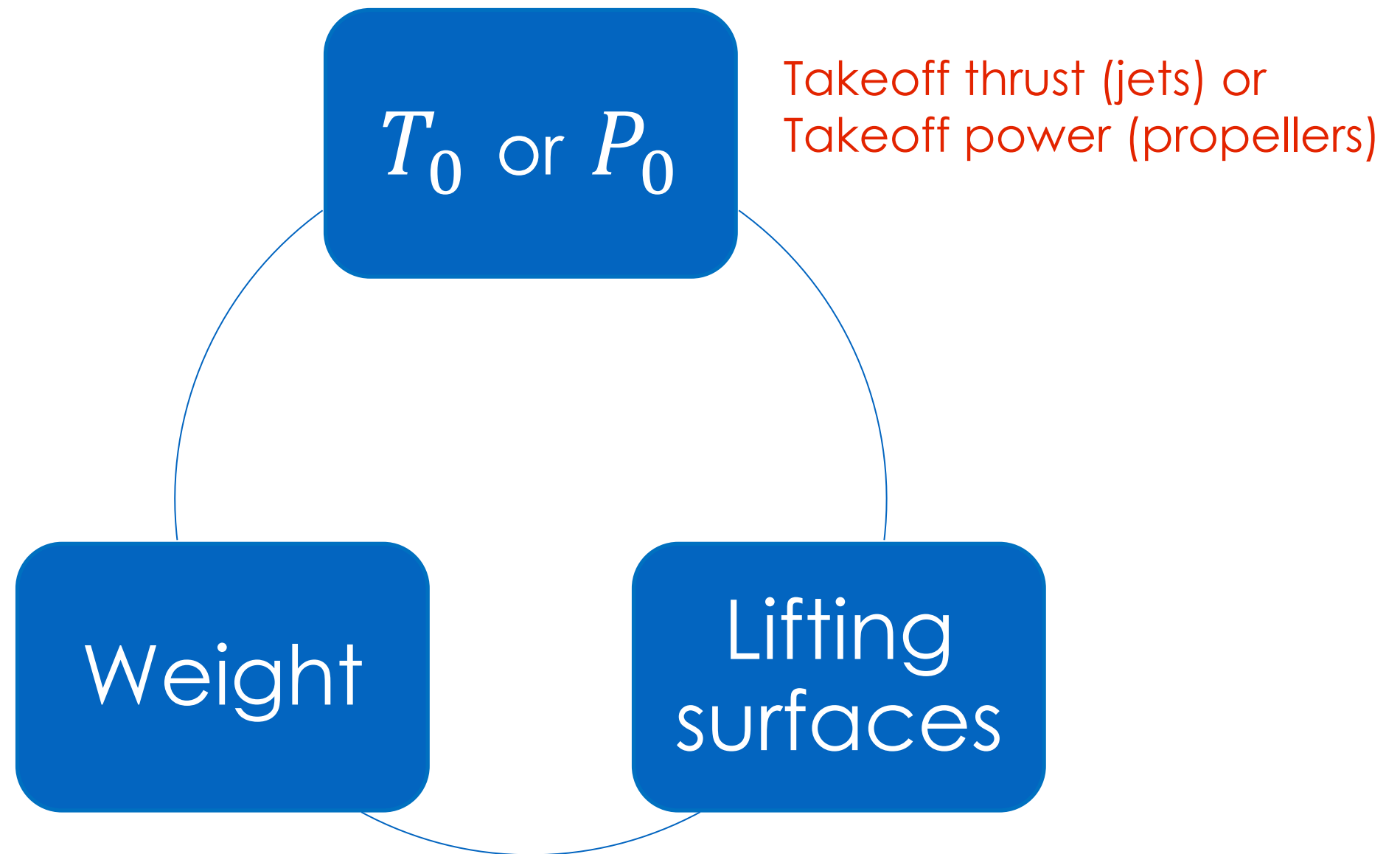
Precisamos averiguar se a aeronave consegue atender a todos os requisitos da missão



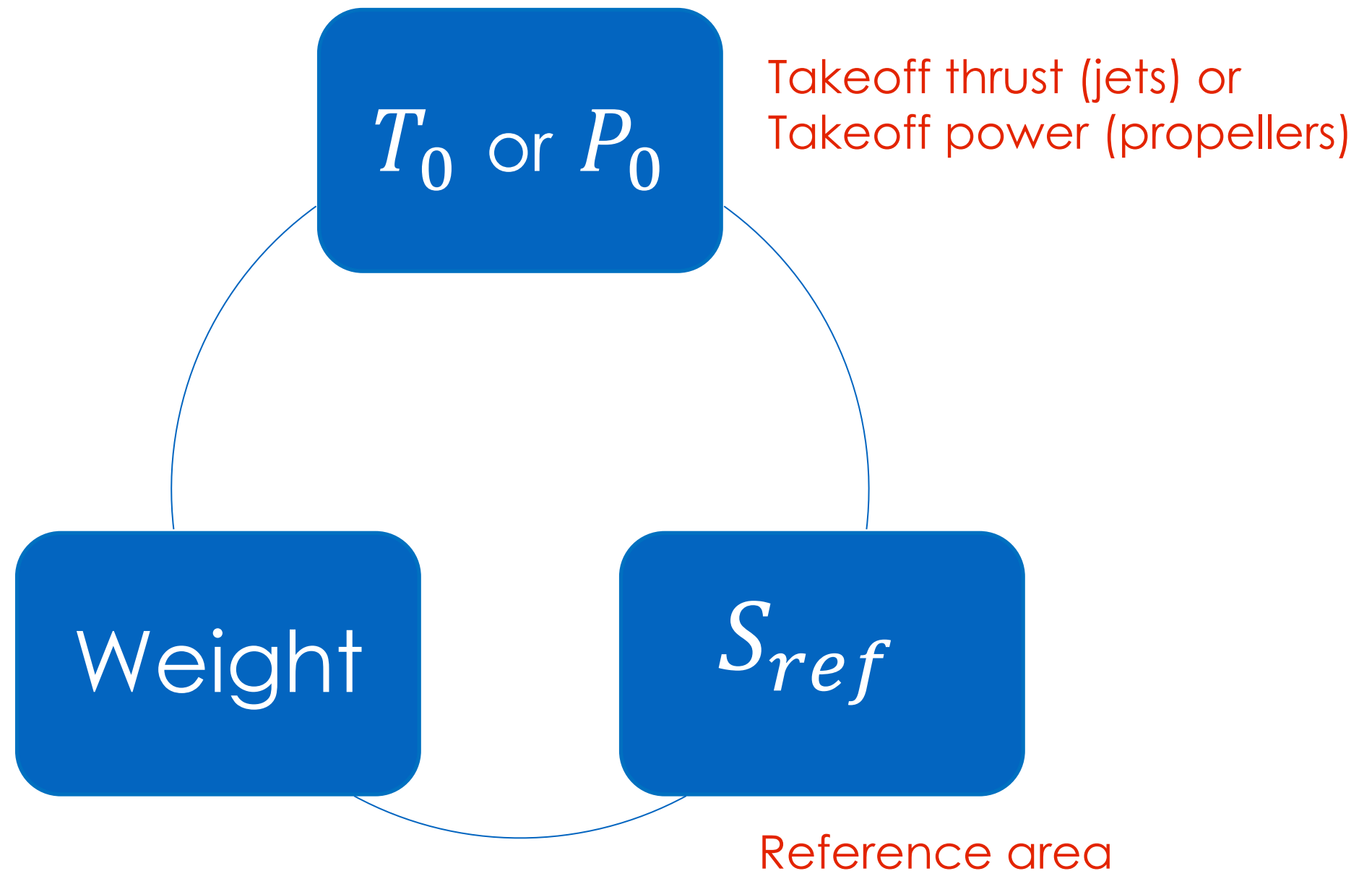
- There should be a balance between:



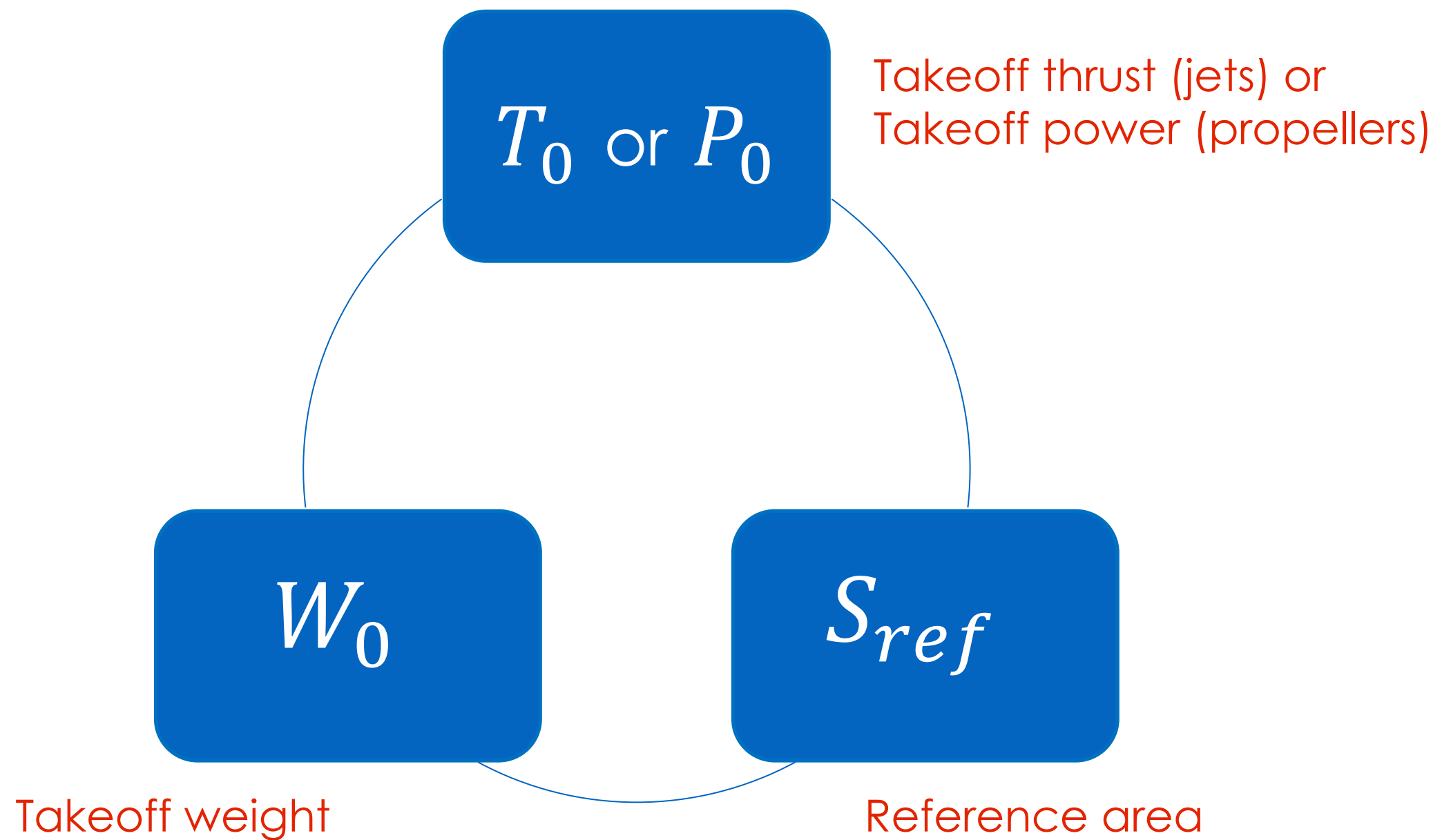
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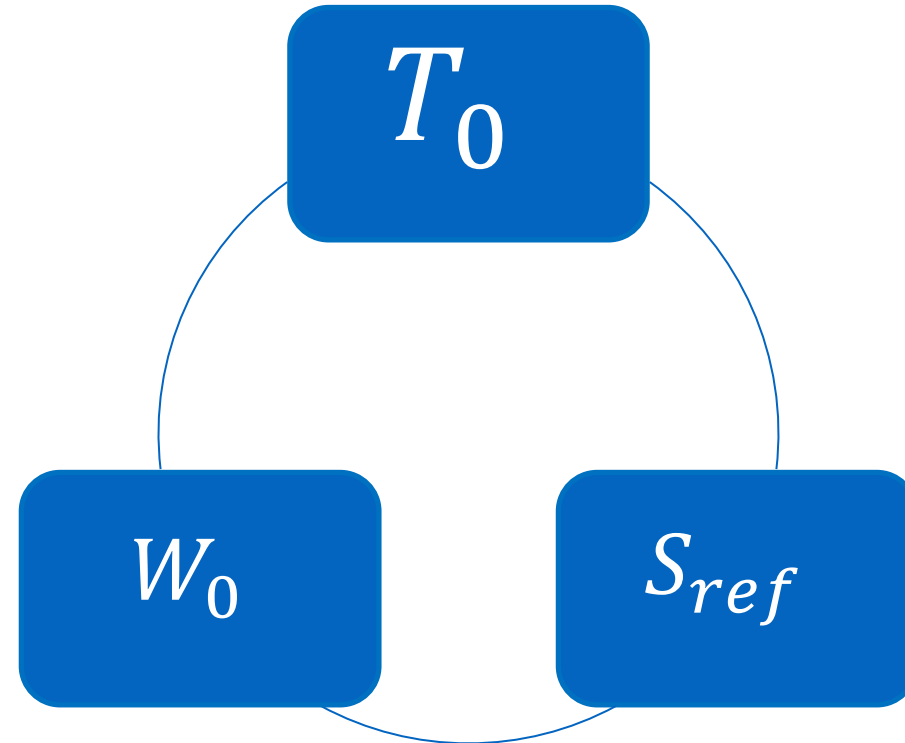


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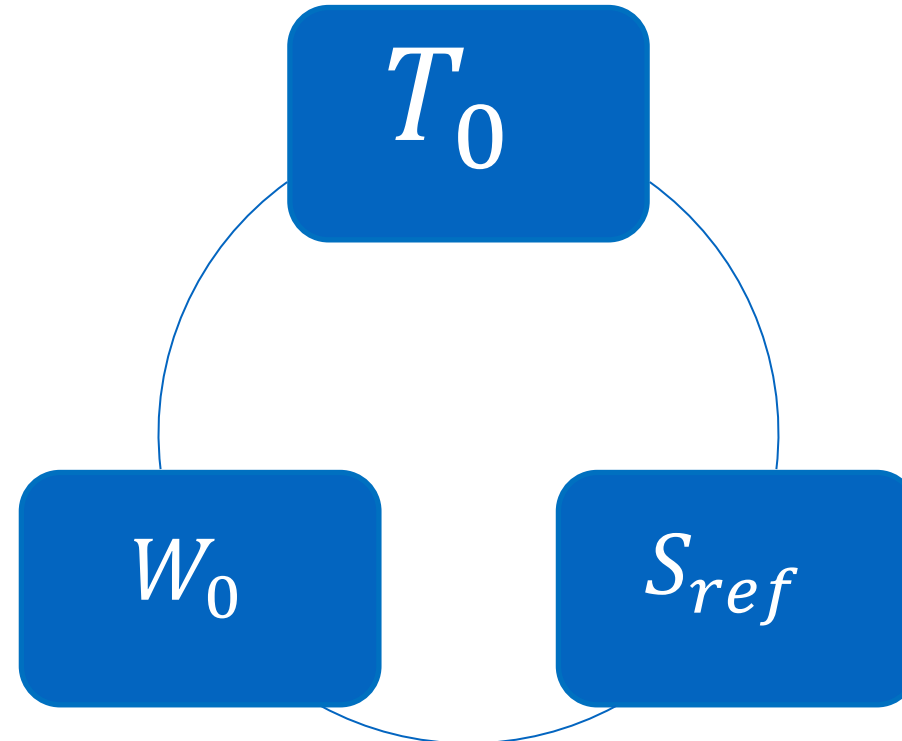
What is Sizing?

- Sizing means finding the right combination of W_0 , T_0 , and S_{ref} that satisfies:
 - Mission
 - Performance



What is Sizing?

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 - Mission \longrightarrow Client
 - Performance \longrightarrow Client / Regulations



Example: Cruise Speed

- During cruise: $L = W$

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[kg/m²]
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→ Wing loading
[kg/m²]
[lb/ft²]

- For low speeds → Low wing loading
- For heavy loads → Higher cruise speed to keep low C_L

Example: Cruise speed



wikipedia.org



wikipedia.org



wikipedia.org

	Cessna 150	Beechcraft Skipper	Cessna 208 Caravan	
MTOW	7122	7456	39191	N
S	15	12.1	25.9	m ²
W/S	475	616	1513	N/m ²
Cruise spd	152	195	343	km/h

Example: Cruise speed



wikipedia.org



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wikipedia.org

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Performance parameters

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- Thrust-to-Weight ratio: $\frac{T_0}{W_0}$
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Reference for weights and thrusts:

- Takeoff configuration
- Standard-day conditions
- Sea-level static (SLS)
- Maximum throttle
- Afterburners on (if available)

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Why do we use these fractions?

- Easy to compare different airplanes

Historical trends: Wing loading

lb/ft²

Dominant Mission Requirement	$(W/S)_{T0}$	Example
High-altitude, long-endurance solar-powered ISR ^a	0.5–3.0	Helios
Competition sailplanes	7–12	ASW 17
Light civil aircraft with short range and field length	10–30	C-172
High-altitude, long-endurance hydrocarbon-powered ISR	25–50	RQ-4A
STOL ^b and utility transports	40–90	C-130
Short or intermediate range with moderate field length	50–90	Learjet 35
Long-range transports and bombers (>3000 n mile)	110–150	B 747
Fighter, high-altitude	30–60	F-106
Fighter, air-to-air	50–80	F-15A
Fighter, close air support	65–90	A-10A
Fighter, strike interdiction	90–130	F-4E
Fighter, interceptor	120–150	F-104G
Low-altitude subsonic cruise missiles	200–240	AGM-109

^aIntelligence, surveillance, and reconnaissance.

^bShort takeoff and landing.

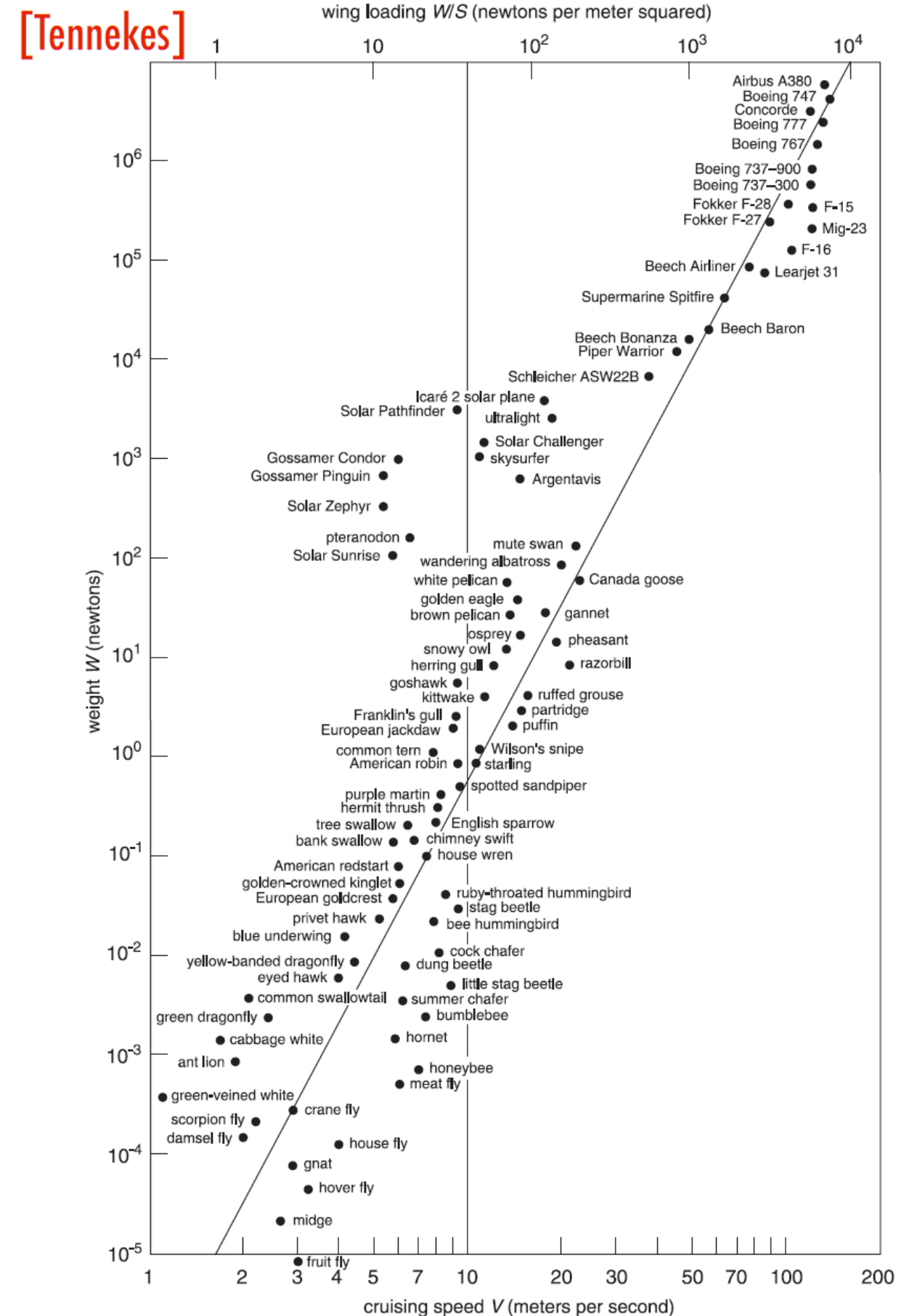
[Nicolai]

Wing-Loading: Nature use it as well!

$$W \propto b^3 \quad S \propto b^2$$

$$\frac{W}{S} \propto \frac{b^3}{b^2} = b$$

$$\frac{W}{S} \propto W^{1/3}$$



Historical Trends: T/W and P/W

Airplane type	T_0/W_0	P_0/W_0 [hp/lb]
Powered Sailplane	—	0.04
Homebuilt	—	0.08
Single-engine GA	—	0.07
Twin-engine GA	—	0.17
Agricultural	—	0.09
Twin Turboprop	—	0.2
Flying boat	—	0.1
Jet trainer	0.4	—
Jet Fighter	0.6–0.9	—
Military cargo/bomber	0.25	—
Jet transport	0.25–0.4	—

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Converting from thrust to power:

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Why do we use these fractions?

- Easy to compare different airplanes
- They show up in almost every performance equation

Performance Requirements

- Stall speed
- Takeoff
- Landing
- Climb
- Ceiling
- Maneuver (load factor)
- Cruise speed
- Sink ratio



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Stall speed

- 1-g definition: minimum airspeed such that the airplane lift can balance its own weight

Stall speed

- 1-g definition: minimum airspeed such that the airplane lift can balance its own weight:

$$L = W_0 \longleftarrow \text{Takeoff weight is the most critical case}$$

$$\frac{\rho V^2}{2} S_{ref} C_L = W_0$$

$$V = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\rho C_L} \cdot \frac{W_0}{S_{ref}}}$$

- To minimize speed, we need to maximize C_L

$$V_{stall} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\rho C_{Lmax}} \cdot \frac{W_0}{S_{ref}}} \qquad \frac{W_0}{S_{ref}} = \frac{\rho V_{stall}^2}{2} C_{Lmax}$$

Stall speed

- Stall speed is one of the most important performance parameters, as other requirements are based on this airspeed.
- Stall speed depends on wing loading, but not T/W.
- Want to fly slow? → Increase C_{Lmax} or reduce W/S.
- Remember to use the correct flap setting for C_{Lmax} . We can have requirements for flaps-up and/or flaps-down.
- FAR 23: Maximum stall speed allowed is 61 kts.
- Regulations may have different definitions for stall speed. The definition we are using is suitable for preliminary design.

$$V_{stall} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\rho C_{Lmax}} \cdot \frac{W_0}{S_{ref}}} \qquad \frac{W_0}{S_{ref}} = \frac{\rho V_{stall}^2}{2} C_{Lmax}$$

Example: Stall speed



wikipedia.org



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→ Stall spd	42	47	61	kts

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Sizing to Takeoff Distance Requirements

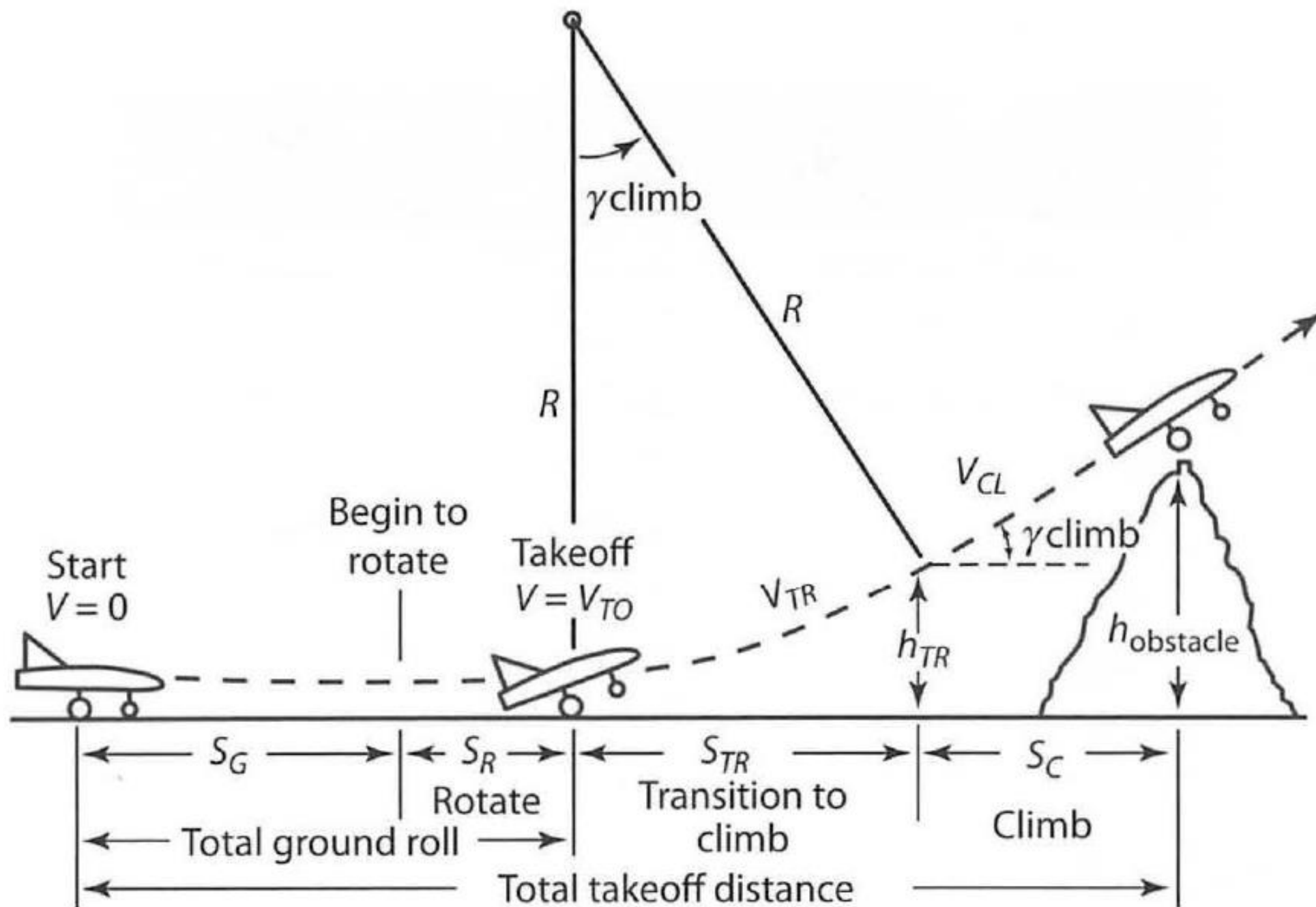
- Takeoff is complicated
 - Airplane is accelerating in x
 - Airplane is rotating in pitch
 - Airplane is accelerating in z once it lifts off
 - Lift is modified by ground effect
 - Ground is exerting a force in x and z
- Takeoff affected by

$W_{TO}, V_{TO}, T/W$ or $P/W, D, \mu_G$

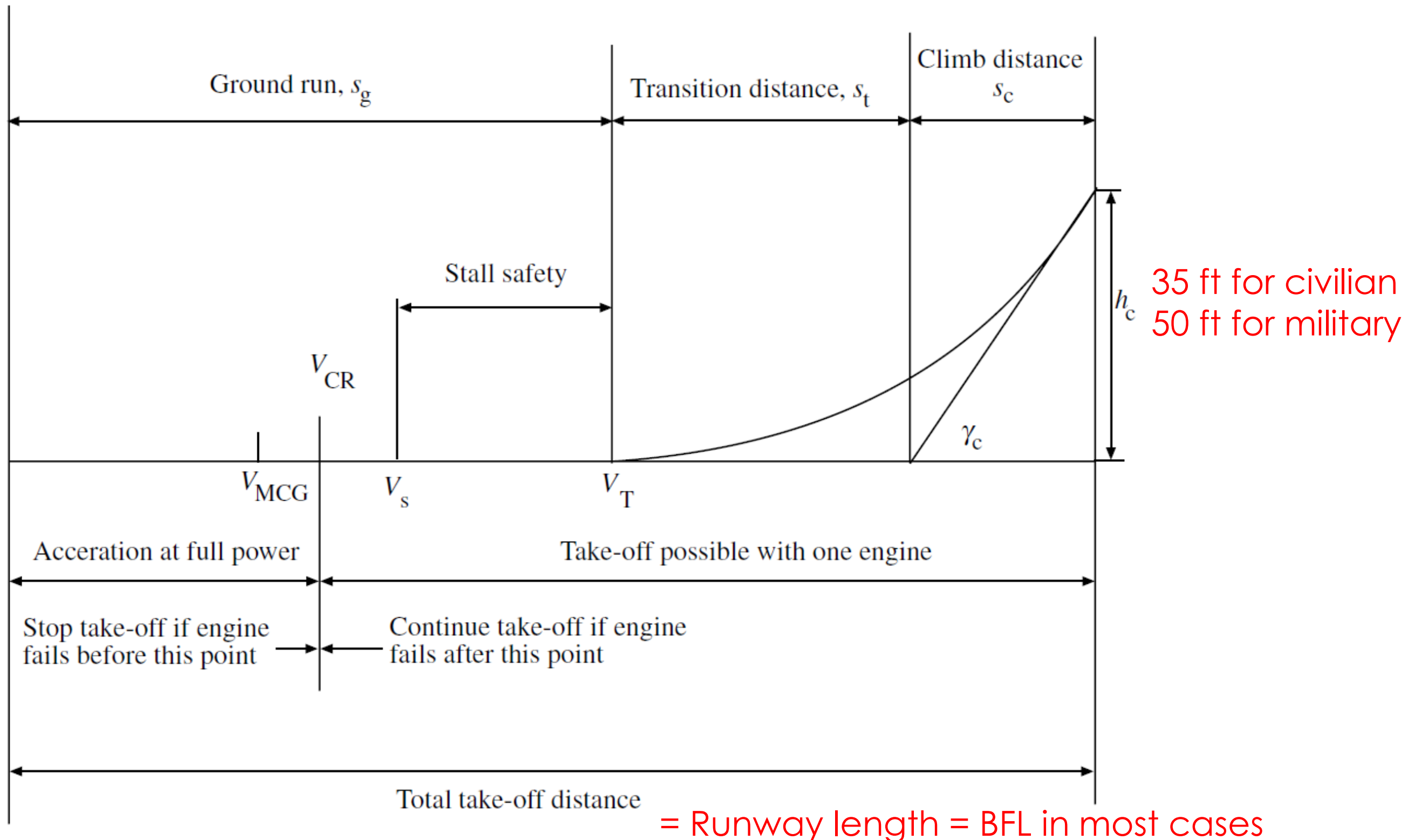
Ground
friction
coefficient



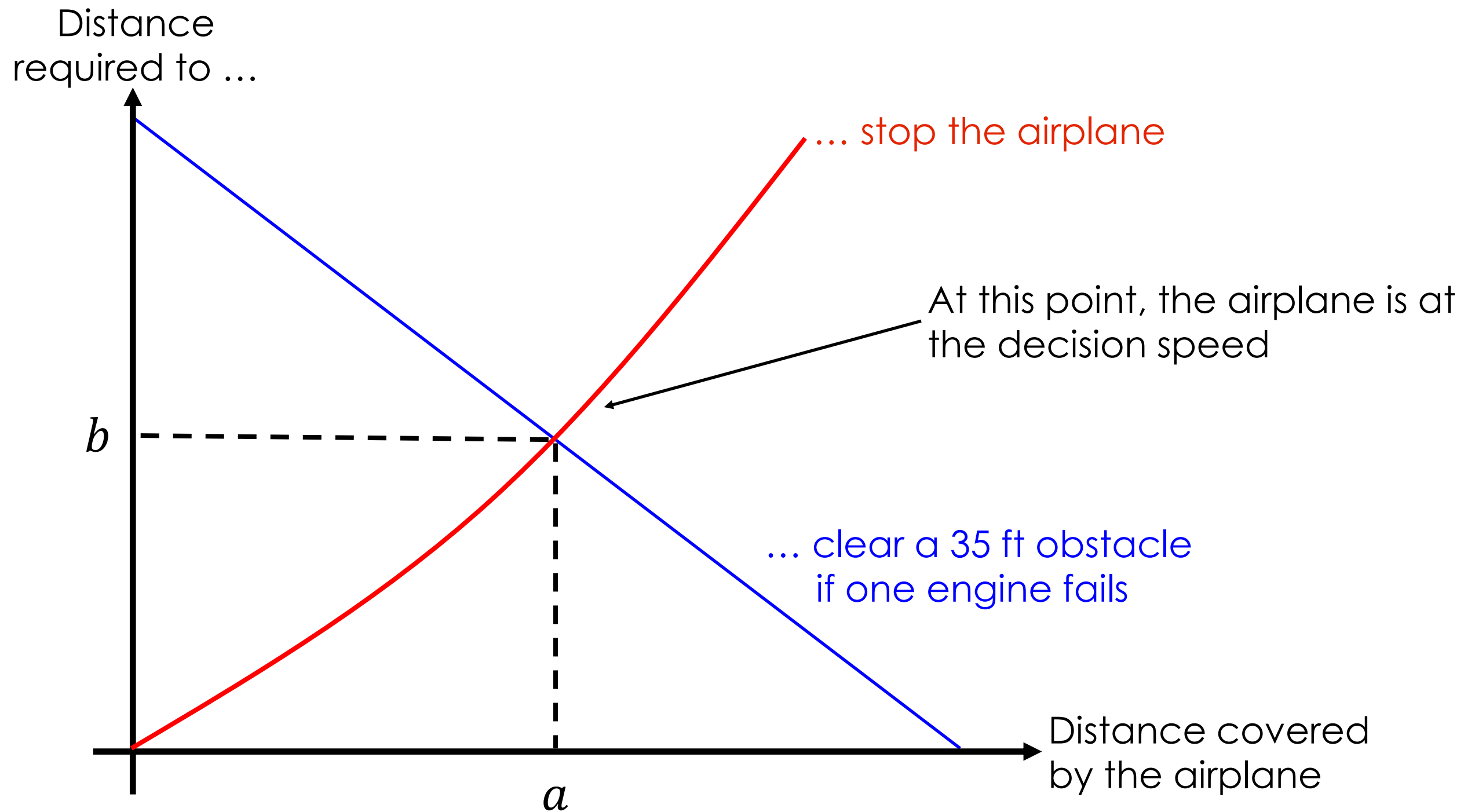
Takeoff Dynamics



Balanced Field Length (BFL)



How to find decision speed and BFL?



$$BFL = a + b$$

Takeoff Distance Definitions

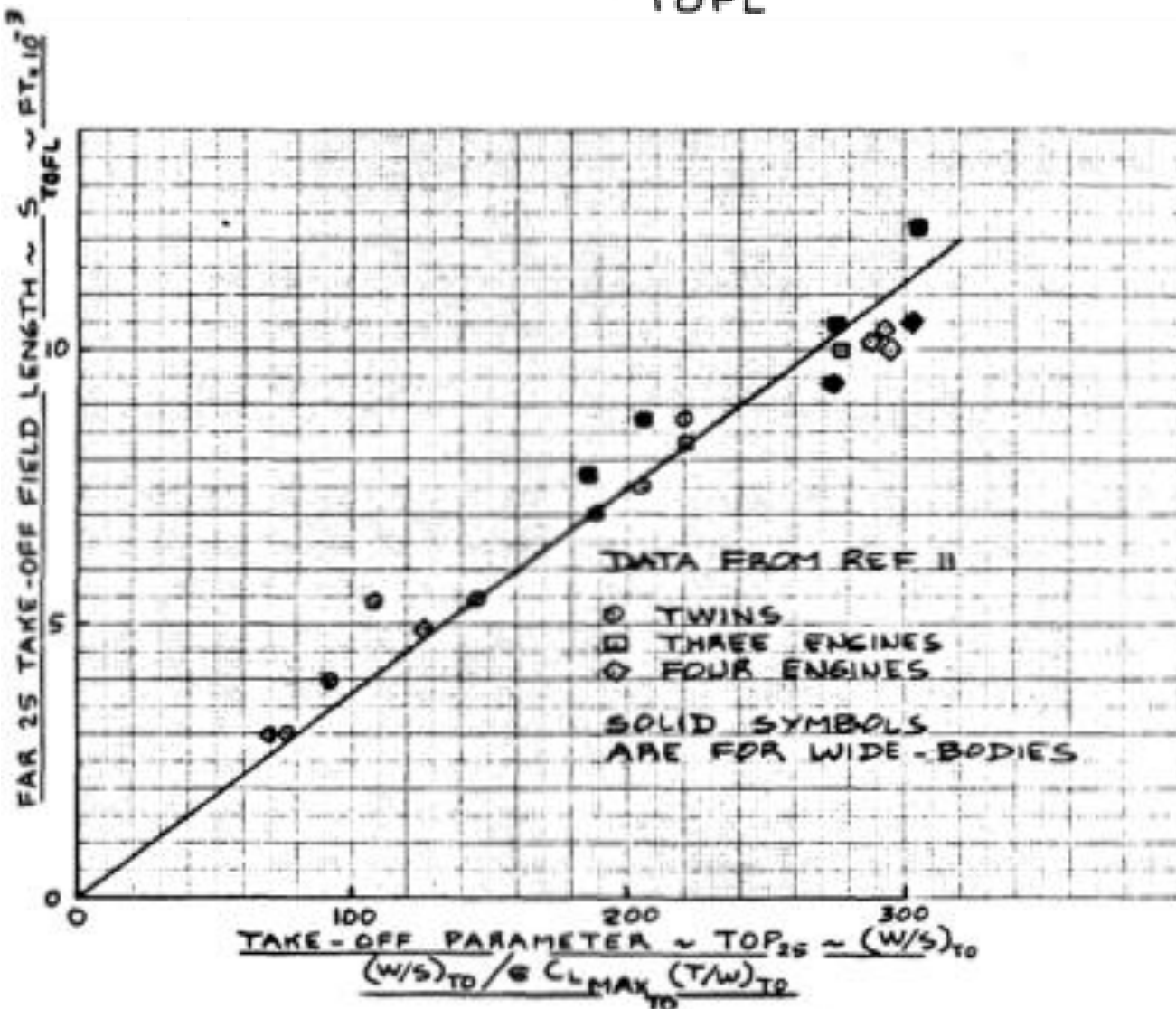
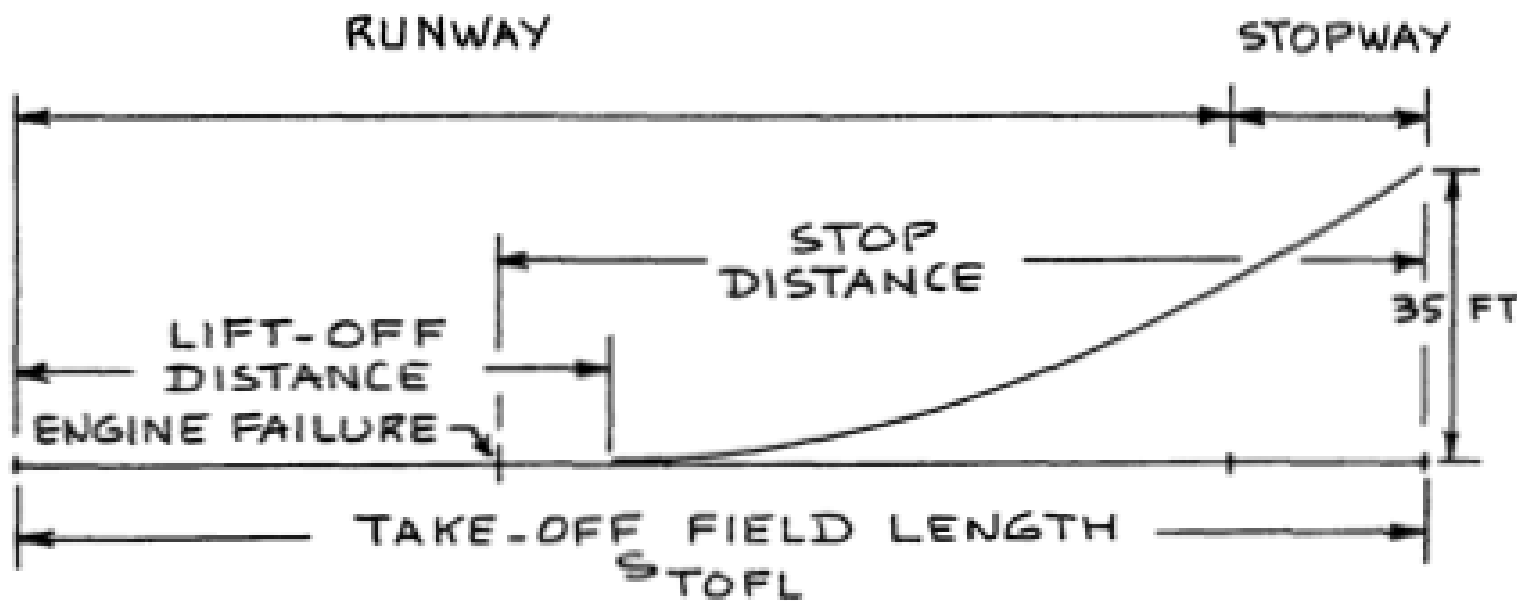
- Ground Roll: Actual ground distance until liftoff
- Obstacle clearance distance: Distance required (from brake release) to reach a certain altitude
- Decision speed (V_1): Speed at which distance to stop after an engine failure is equal to the distance to continue the takeoff with remaining engines
- Balanced field length: Takeoff distance when one engine fails at decision speed

09/08/2015
LAS airport
British airways flight 2276



FAR 25 Takeoff Requirements

[Roskam, Part I, Figs. 3.6, 3.7]



$$TOP = \frac{W_{TO}/S_{ref}}{(\rho/\rho_{SL}) \cdot C_{Lmax,TO} \cdot T_{TO}/W_{TO}}$$

$$BFL = 37.5 \cdot TOP$$

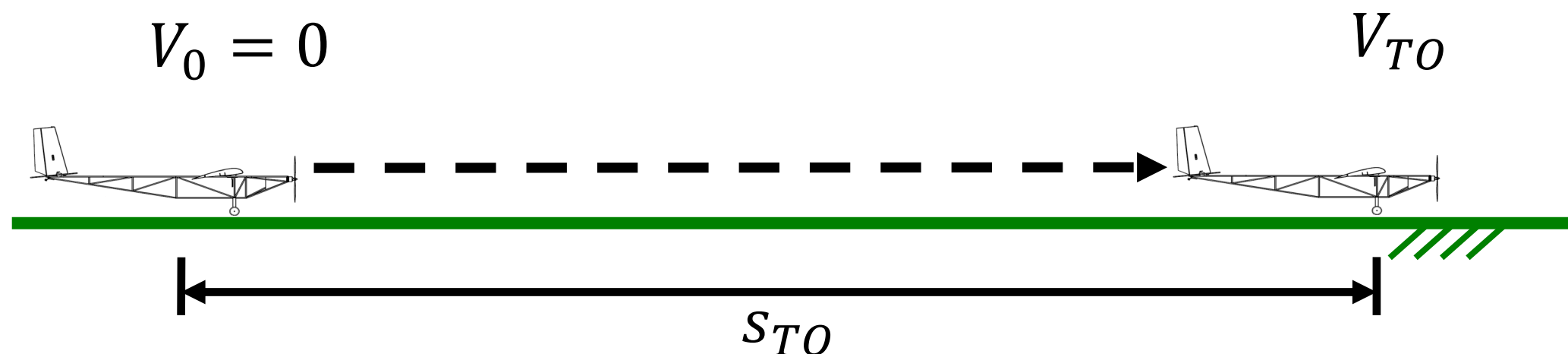
English units!

$$C_{Lmax,TO} \sim 0.80 \cdot C_{Lmax,landing}$$

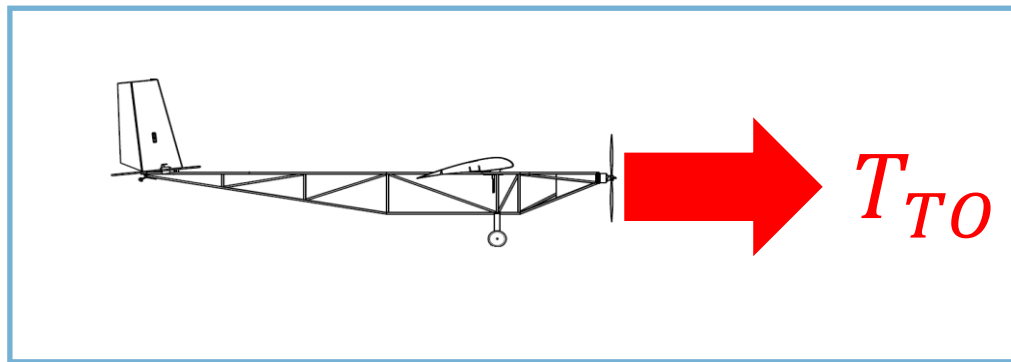
Takeoff Parameter (TOP)

- Consider only thrust during ground run. Also neglect the rotation phase.
- The airplane should accelerate from $V_0 = 0$ until the takeoff speed V_{TO} .
- We will define the takeoff speed as a function of the stall speed:

$$V_{TO} = k_s V_{stall} \quad \text{with} \quad k_s > 1.0$$



Takeoff Parameter (TOP)



$$\vec{F} = m\vec{a}$$

$$T_{TO} = \frac{W_{TO}}{g} \cdot \frac{dV}{dt}$$

$$T_{TO} = \frac{W_{TO}}{g} \cdot \frac{dV}{dx} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt}$$

$$T_{TO} = \frac{W_{TO}}{g} \cdot \frac{dV}{dx} \cdot V$$

$$\frac{g \cdot T_{TO}}{W_{TO}} dx = V dV$$

$$\int_0^{s_{TO}} \frac{g \cdot T_{TO}}{W_{TO}} dx = \int_0^{V_{TO}} V dV$$

$$\frac{g \cdot T_{TO} \cdot s_{TO}}{W_{TO}} = \frac{V_{TO}^2}{2} = \frac{k_s^2 V_{stall}^2}{2}$$

$$\frac{g \cdot T_{TO} \cdot s_{TO}}{W_{TO}} = \frac{k_s^2}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{\rho C_{Lmax,TO}} \cdot \frac{W_{TO}}{S_{ref}}$$

$$s_{TO} = \frac{k_s^2}{g} \cdot \frac{(W_{TO}/S_{ref})}{\rho C_{Lmax,TO} (T_{TO}/W_{TO})}$$

Takeoff Parameter (TOP)

$$s_{TO} = \frac{k_s^2}{g} \cdot \frac{(W_{TO}/S_{ref})}{\rho C_{Lmax,TO}(T_{TO}/W_{TO})}$$

$$s_{TO} = \frac{k_s^2}{g\rho_{SL}} \cdot \frac{(W_{TO}/S_{ref})}{(\rho/\rho_{SL}) \cdot C_{Lmax,TO} \cdot (T_{TO}/W_{TO})} - TOP$$

$$s_{TO} = \frac{k_s^2}{g\rho_{SL}} \cdot TOP$$

As $BFL \propto s_{TO}$, then $BFL \propto TOP$

Roskam showed that for FAR 25: $BFL = 37.5 \cdot TOP$

FAR 25 Takeoff Sizing Example

Size a passenger jet so that the takeoff field length is less than 5,000 ft at 8,000 ft altitude

$$s_{TOFL} = 37.5 TOP_{25}$$

$$= 37.5 \times \frac{\left(\frac{W}{S}\right)_{TO}}{\sigma (C_{L_{max}})_{TO} \left(\frac{T}{W}\right)_{TO}}$$

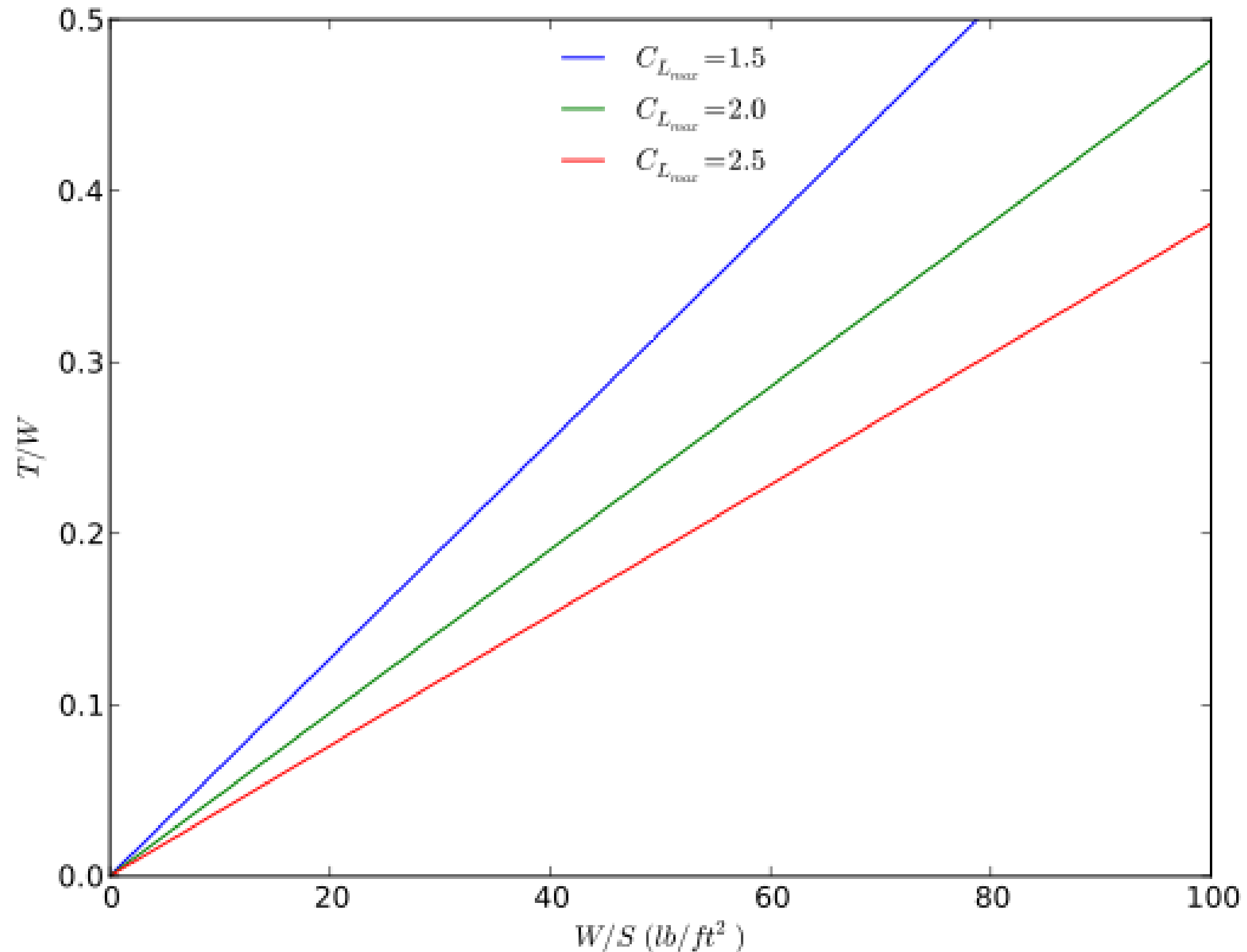
$$5000/37.5 > \frac{\left(\frac{W}{S}\right)_{TO}}{\sigma (C_{L_{max}})_{TO} \left(\frac{T}{W}\right)_{TO}}$$

$$\frac{\left(\frac{W}{S}\right)_{TO}}{(C_{L_{max}})_{TO} \left(\frac{T}{W}\right)_{TO}} < \sigma \times 5000/37.5$$

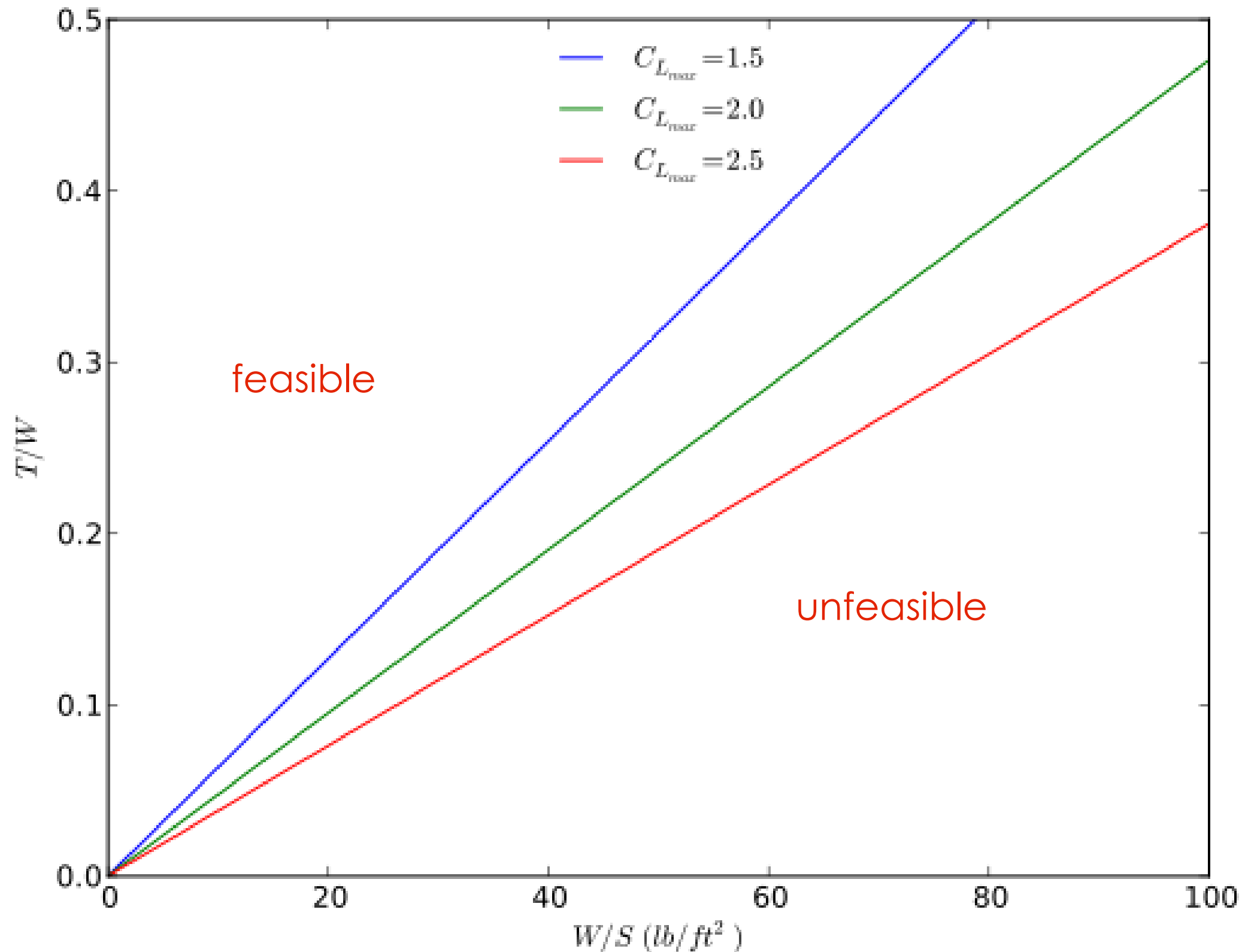
$$< 0.786 \times 5000/37.5$$

$$< 104.8 \text{ psf}$$

Representing the Constraint Graphically

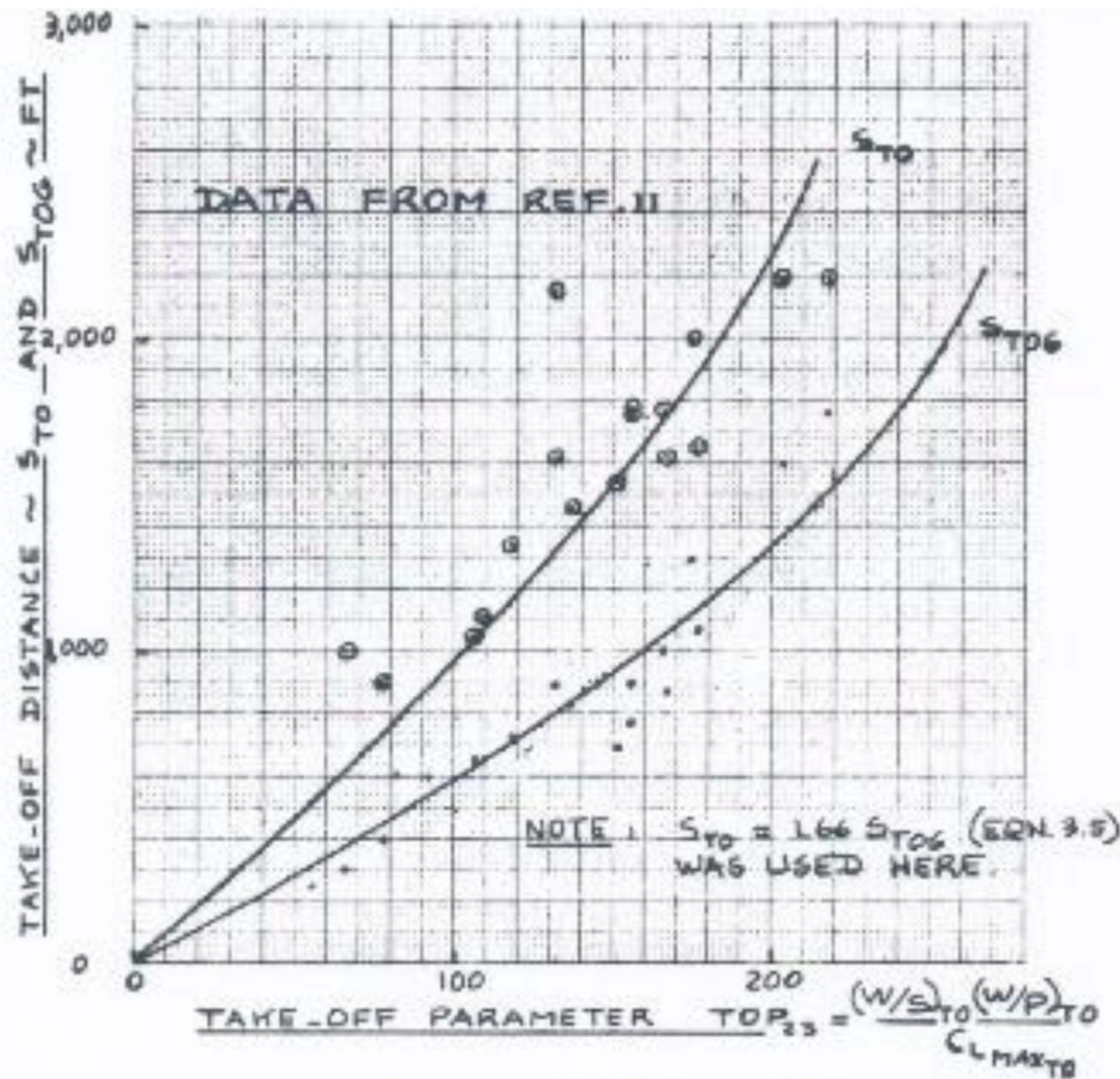


Representing the Constraint Graphically



Relating the Takeoff Parameter to Distance (FAR 23)

[Roskam, Part I, Fig 3.3]



$$s_{TOG} = 4.9 TOP_{23} + 0.009 TOP_{23}^2 = \text{Total Takeoff Distance}$$

$$s_{TO} = 1.66 s_{TOG} = \text{Total Ground Roll}$$

Example: Takeoff Sizing Using Roskam's Formula

- Size a propeller-driven airplane to meet, at an altitude of 5,000 ft,

$$s_{TOG} < 1000 \text{ ft}$$

$$s_{TO} < 1500 \text{ ft}$$

- Since $s_{TO} = 1.6s_{TOG}$, the second requirement is the more restrictive one
- From Roskam's formula:

$$1500 \text{ ft} > 1.66 (4.9 TOP_{23} + 0.009 TOP_{23}^2)$$

$$TOP_{23} < 145.6 \frac{\text{lb}^2}{\text{ft}^2 \text{hp}}$$

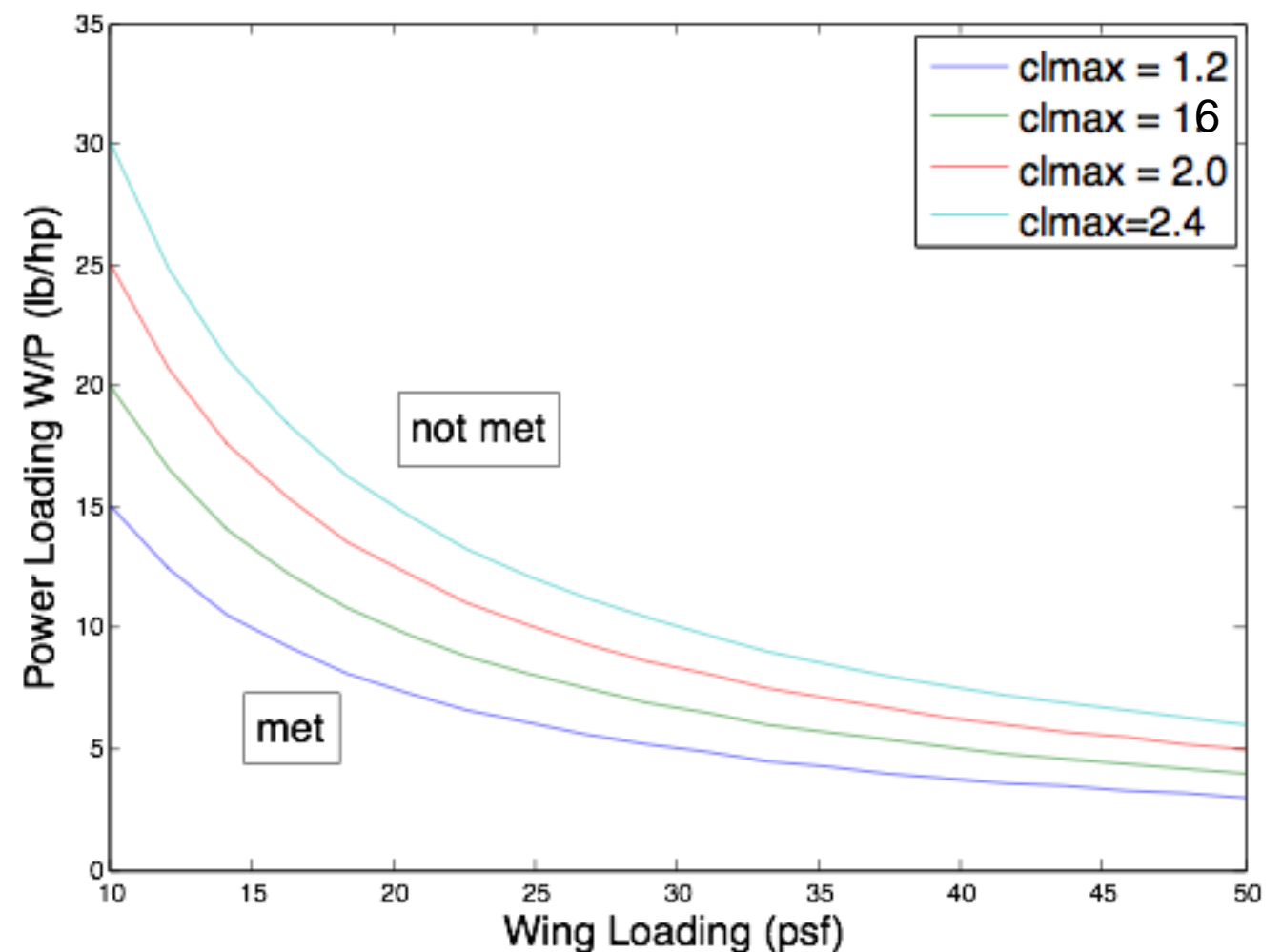
$$\frac{(W/S)_{TO}}{(P/W)_{TO} \sigma (C_{L_{max}})_{TO}} < 145.6 \frac{\text{lb}^2}{\text{ft}^2 \text{hp}}$$

$$\frac{(W/S)_{TO}}{(P/W)_{TO} (C_{L_{max}})_{TO}} < 145.6 \times 0.8616 \frac{\text{lb}^2}{\text{ft}^2 \text{hp}}$$

Representing the Constraint Graphically

Write a simple MATLAB code to plot power loading (W/P) as a function of wing loading (W/S) for several lift coefficients, using the derived constraint formula

```
>> wingLoading=linspace(10,50,20);  
>> clmax=1.2;  
>> wp1 = clmax*125.4./wingLoading;  
>> clmax=1.6;  
>> wp2 = clmax*125.4./wingLoading;  
>> clmax=2.0;  
>> wp3 = clmax*125.4./wingLoading;  
>> clmax=2.4;  
>> wp4 = clmax*125.4./wingLoading;  
>> plot(wingLoading,wp1,wingLoading,wp2,wingLoading,wp3,wingLoading,wp4);
```



Performance Requirements

- Stall speed
- Takeoff
- Landing
- Climb
- Cruise speed
- Ceiling
- Maneuver (load factor)

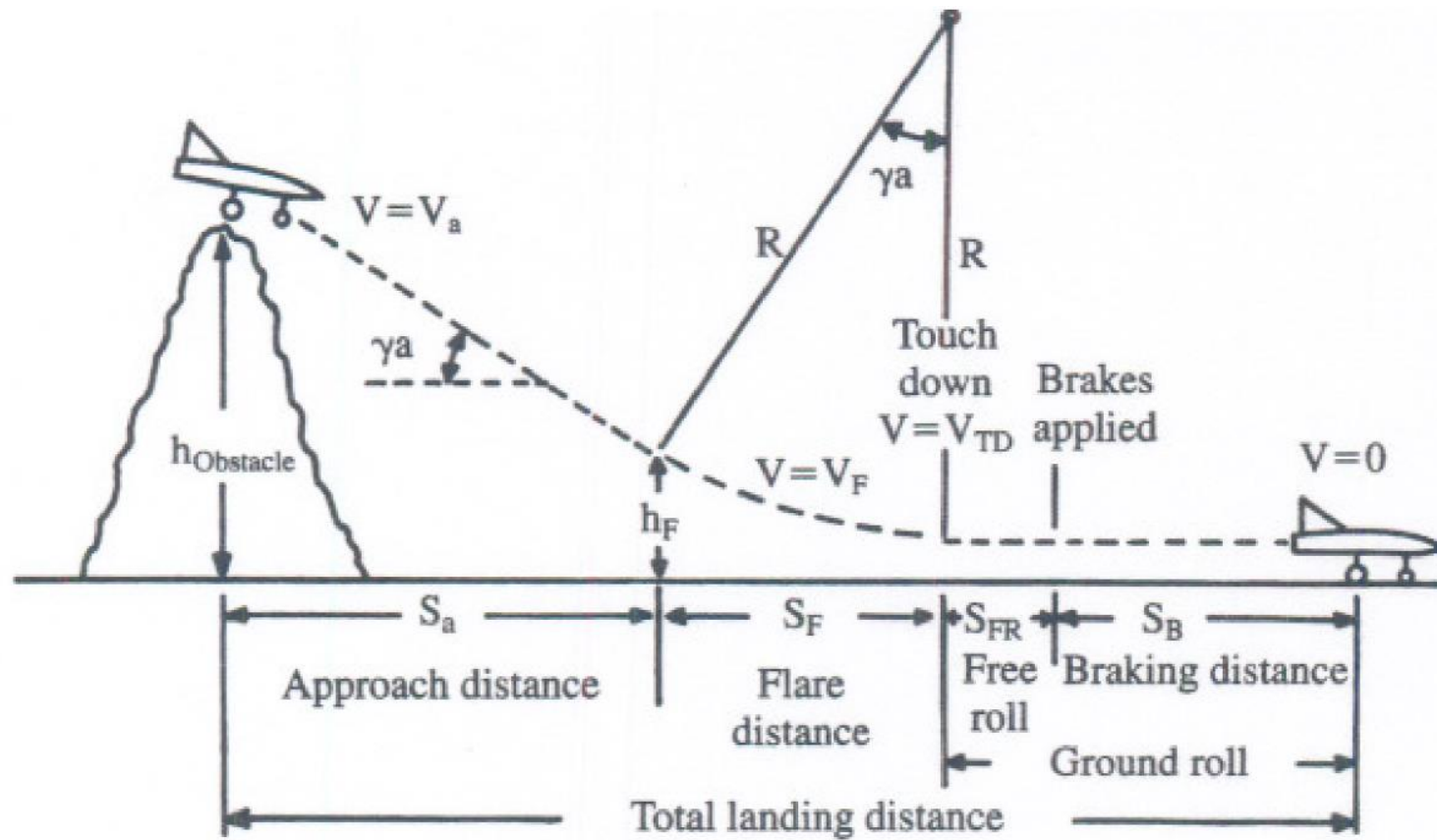


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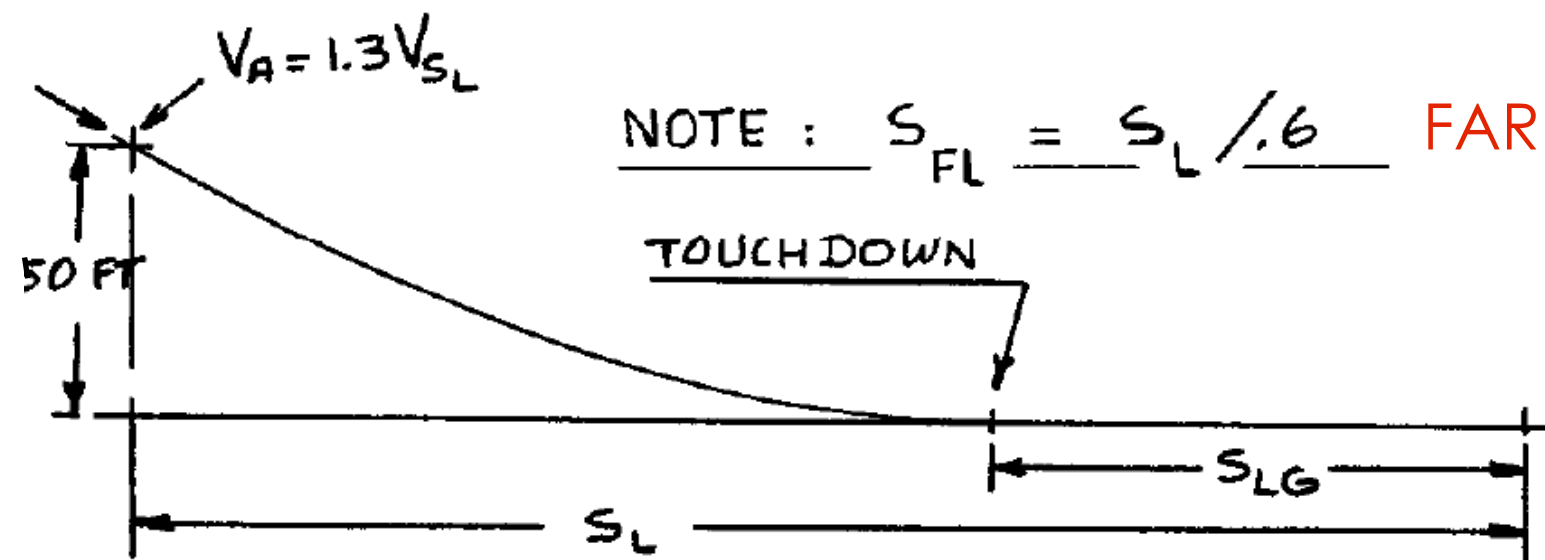


Analyzing Landing



[Raymer]

[Roskam]



NOTE : $S_{FL} = S_L / .6$ FAR 25

Landing Field Lengths

- FAR 23: Clear a 50-foot object at approach speed (1.3 times stall speed) and on approach glide path (3 degrees). Touchdown at 1.15 times stall speed.
- FAR 25: Clear a 50-foot object at approach speed (1.3 times stall speed) and on approach glide path (3 degrees). Apply a safety factor of 1.66 (=1/0.6) to the landing distance.

$$s_{FL} = s_L / 0.6$$

Sizing to Landing Distance Requirements

- Landing distance depends on landing weight, approach speed and deceleration method used
- Deceleration methods include

- Brakes
- Thrust reversers
- Parachutes
- Arresting systems
- Crash barriers (ouch!)

FAR says these can not be used to meet landing specifications!

- Simple energy analysis suggests that landing distance scales with square of approach speed
- Wing loading greatly affects landing distance

Because approach speed is set by stall speed, and stall speed depends on wing loading

Landing-Distance Formulas

- The ground run distance (s_{LG}) is proportional to the kinetic energy of airplane, and the kinetic energy is proportional to the square of approach speed:

$$s_{LG} \propto V_A^2$$

- As the approach speed is 1.3 times the stall speed of the landing configuration, we can also say that:

$$s_{LG} \propto V_{stall,L}^2$$

$$s_{LG} \propto \frac{(W_L/S_{ref})}{\rho C_{Lmax,L}}$$

- W_L should be the Maximum Landing Weight (MLW):

Landing-Distance Formulas

We need to consider an additional safety margin for FAR 25 airplanes:

$$S_{FL} = s_L / 0.6$$

└───────────────────> This should be compared with the runway length

$$V_a = 1.701 \sqrt{S_{FL}} \quad (\text{m}) \quad [\text{Roskam}]$$

Now we can compute the stall speed with

$$V_s = \frac{V_a}{1.3}$$

The corresponding wing loading is

$$\frac{W_L}{S_{ref}} = \frac{\rho V_s^2}{2} C_{Lmax}$$

We also need to convert the weights back to takeoff weight:

$$\frac{W_{TO}}{S_{ref}} = \frac{W_L / S_{ref}}{W_L / W_{TO}}$$

W_L should be the Maximum Landing Weight (MLW)

FAR Regulations for Landing Weight

- FAR 25.1001: The airplane should reach its maximum landing weight 15 minutes after takeoff. You can consider climb, go-around, and descent for this computation.
- If the airplane cannot meet this requirement by fuel-consumption alone, then the manufacturer should install fuel-dumping systems.

A340-600

[wikipedia.org](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Airbus_A340-600)

IMPORTANT:
Do NOT use the landing weight from
the fuel-fraction computation!



Fuel jettison system



F-111

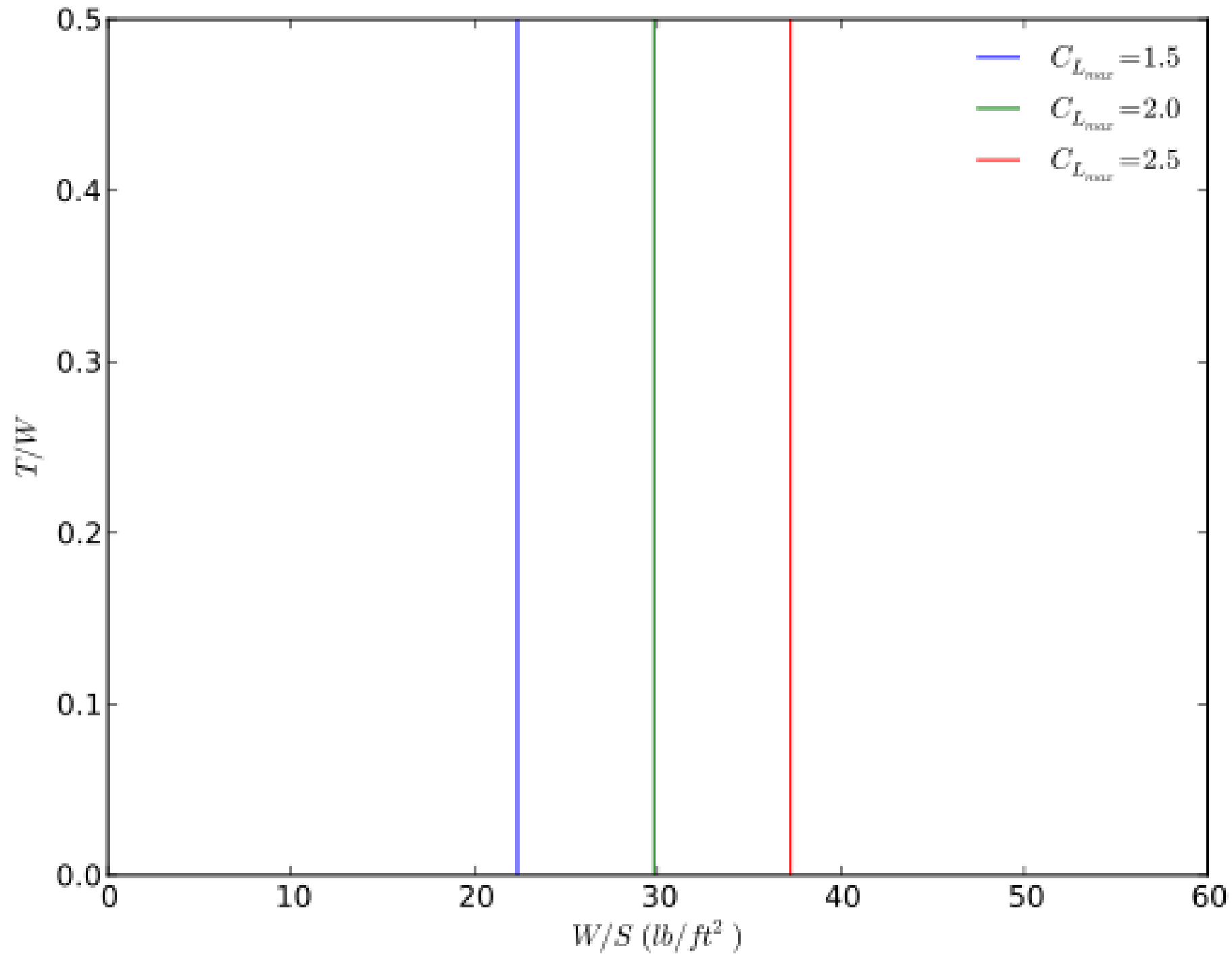


Landing Weight to Takeoff Weight: History/Statistics

[Roskam, Part I, Table 3.3]

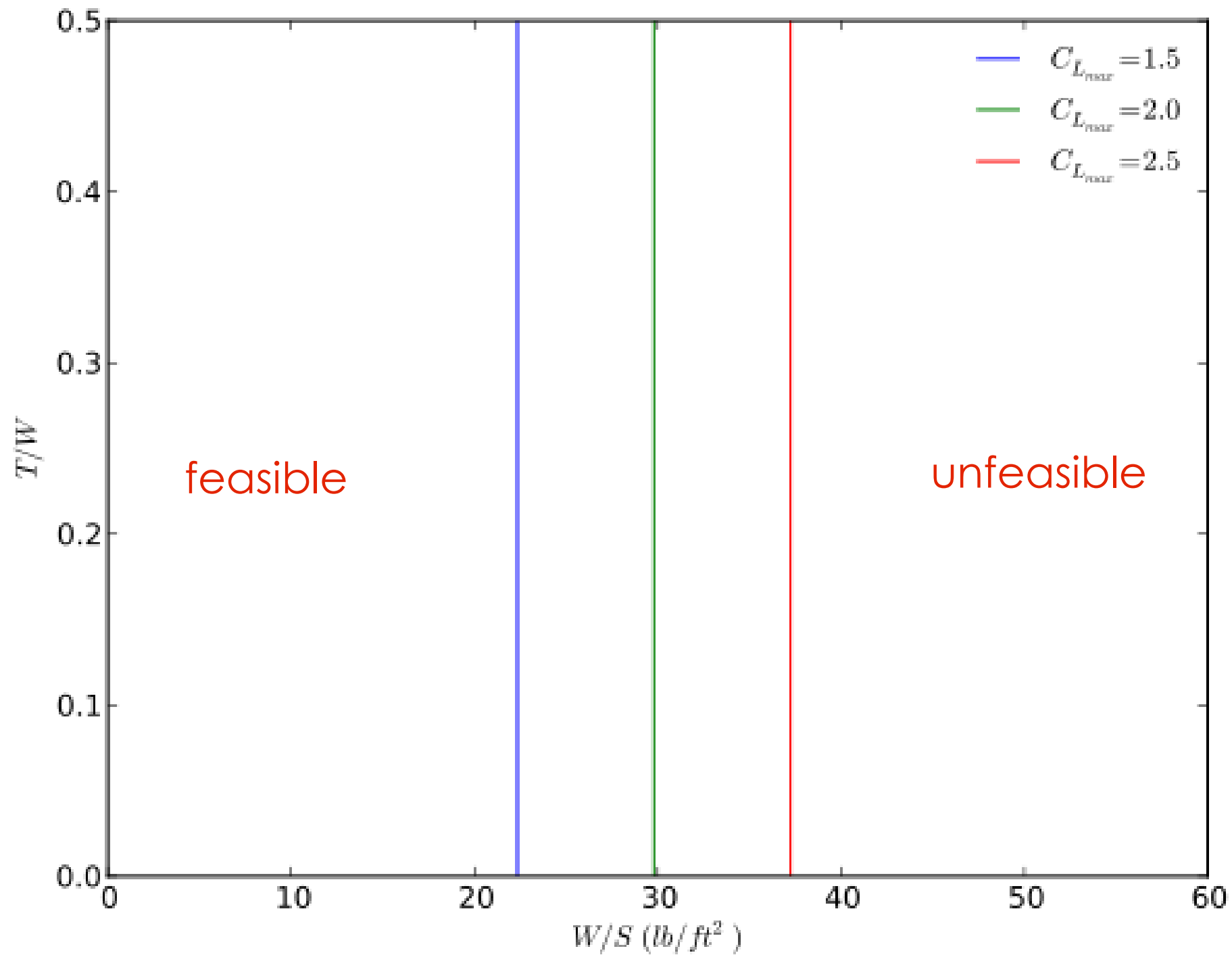
Plane type	min W_L/W_{TO}	ave W_L/W_{TO}	max W_L/W_{TO}
Homebuilt	0.96	1	1
Single-engine GA	0.95	0.997	1
Twin-engine GA	0.88	0.99	1
Agricultural	0.7	0.94	1
Business Jet	0.69	0.88	0.96
Twin Turboprop	0.92	0.98	1
Transport Jet	0.65	0.84	1
Jet trainer	0.87	0.99	1
Jet Fighter	0.78	?	1
Military cargo jet	0.68	0.76	0.83
Flying boat	0.98	?	1
Supersonic cruise	0.63	0.75	0.88

Graphical Representation of Constraint



Landing config values

Graphical Representation of Constraint



Landing config values

Performance Requirements

- Stall speed
- Takeoff
- Landing
- Climb
- Cruise speed
- Ceiling
- Maneuver (load factor)



Performance Requirements

- Stall speed
- Takeoff
- Landing
- Climb
- Cruise speed
- Ceiling
- Maneuver (load factor)



Climb considerations

- Climb starts after takeoff and finishes when the aircraft is 1500 ft above the runway.
- During this phase the aircraft will have different configurations:
 - Flaps down and landing gear down
 - Flaps down and landing gear up
 - Flaps up and landing gear up
- We can use the same equations to analyze balked landing.
- Requirements specify the climb gradient (G) and the climb speed as a function of stall speed (k_s factor).

Climb equations

From equilibrium in both aerodynamic axes:

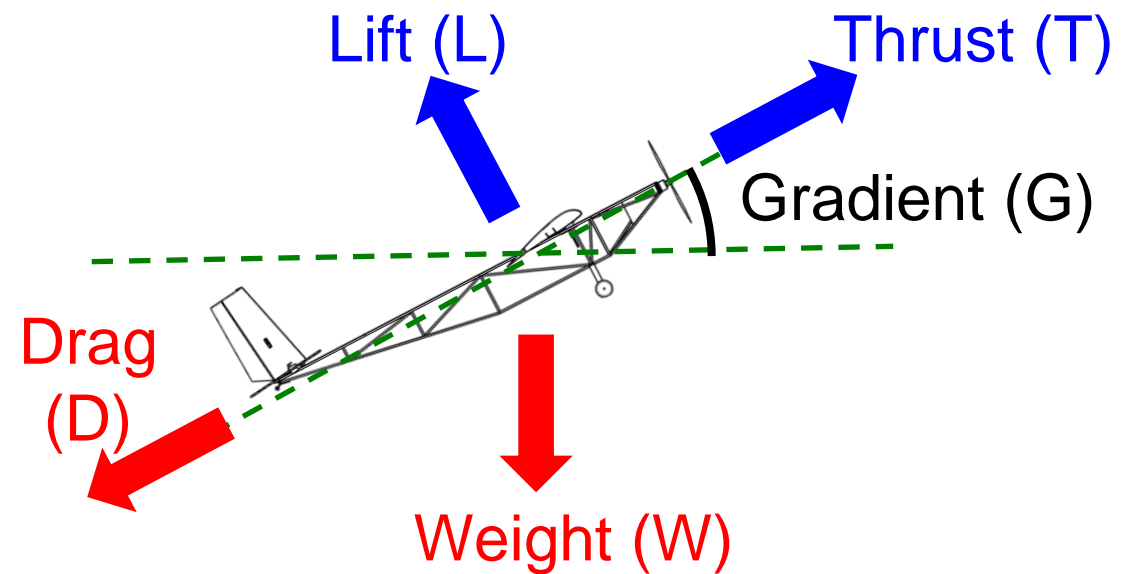
$$T = D + W \cdot \sin(G)$$

$$L = W \cdot \cos(G)$$

For small values of G:

$$T = D + W \cdot G$$

$$L = W$$



Climb equations

From equilibrium in both aerodynamic axes:

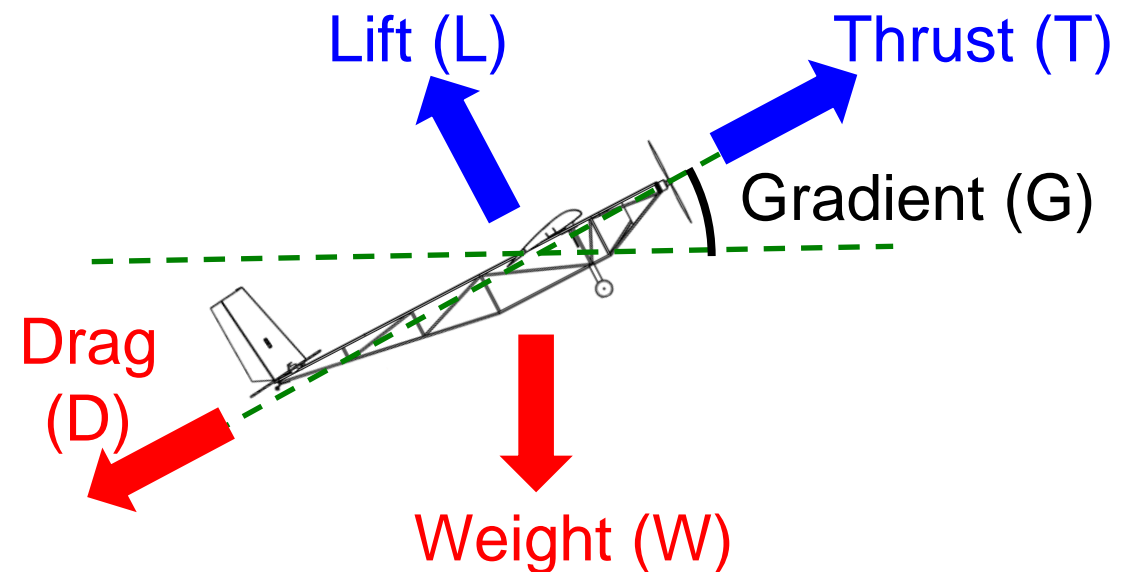
$$T = D + W \cdot \sin(G)$$

$$L = W \cdot \cos(G)$$

For small values of G:

$$T = D + W \cdot G$$

$$L = W$$



Let's start with the lift equation:

$$L = W$$

$$\frac{\rho V^2}{2} \cdot S_{ref} \cdot C_L = W$$

$$C_L = \frac{2W}{\rho S_{ref} V^2}$$

The requirement states that:

$$V = k_s V_{stall} = k_s \sqrt{\frac{2W}{\rho S_{ref} C_{Lmax,CL}}}$$

Then the climb lift coefficient is:

$$C_L = \frac{C_{Lmax,CL}}{k_s^2}$$

Climb equations

Now let's go back to the first equation of the system:

$$T = D + W \cdot G$$

$$\frac{T}{W} = \frac{D}{W} + G$$

$$\frac{T}{W} = \frac{D}{L} + G$$

$$\frac{T}{W} = \frac{C_D}{C_L} + G$$

$$\frac{T}{W} = \frac{C_{D0} + KC_L^2}{C_L} + G$$

$$\frac{T}{W} = \frac{C_{D0}}{C_L} + KC_L + G$$

$$\frac{T}{W} = \frac{k_s^2}{C_{Lmax,CL}} C_{D0} + \frac{C_{Lmax,CL}}{k_s^2} K + G$$

IMPORTANT:

- Aerodynamic coefficients may change from one climb phase to another.
- We need to correct T/W to compare with takeoff values.

Thrust corrections

$$\frac{T_{TO}}{W_{TO}} = \frac{1}{0.94} \cdot \frac{N}{N-1} \cdot \frac{W}{W_{TO}} \cdot \frac{T}{W}$$


Ratio between maximum thrust and maximum continuous thrust. Use this ratio only if the climb phase requires maximum continuous thrust.

Factor for one engine inoperative condition (OEI). N is the total number of engines of the airplane. Only use this factor if the climb phase requires OEI.

Factor to take into account weight changes. Important for balked landing climb phases, when it should be $MLW/MTOW$

Calculated with the climb equation

FAR 25 Requirements

- FAR 25.111 (takeoff climb):
 - OEI (One engine inoperative). Remaining engines at takeoff thrust or power (T_{TO}).
 - $G > 1.2\%$ (two-engine airplanes)
 - $G > 1.5\%$ (three-engine airplanes)
 - $G > 1.7\%$ (four-engine airplanes)
 - Takeoff flaps, landing gear retracted 
 - $k_s = 1.2$
 - Maximum takeoff weight
- This changes the aerodynamic coefficients!

FAR 25 Requirements

- FAR 25.121 (transition segment climb):
 - OEI (One engine inoperative). Remaining engines at takeoff thrust or power (T_{TO}).
 - $G > 0.0\%$ (two-engine airplanes)
 - $G > 0.3\%$ (three-engine airplanes)
 - $G > 0.5\%$ (four-engine airplanes)
 - Takeoff flaps, landing gear down
 - $1.1 < k_s < 1.2$
 - Maximum takeoff weight

FAR 25 Requirements

- FAR 25.121 (second segment climb):
 - OEI (One engine inoperative). Remaining engines at takeoff thrust or power (T_{TO}).
 - $G > 2.4\%$ (two-engine airplanes)
 - $G > 2.7\%$ (three-engine airplanes)
 - $G > 3.0\%$ (four-engine airplanes)
 - Takeoff flaps, landing gear retracted
 - $k_s = 1.2$
 - Maximum takeoff weight

FAR 25 Requirements

- FAR 25.121 (en-route climb):
 - OEI (One engine inoperative). Remaining engines at **maximum continuous thrust or power** ($\sim 0.94 \cdot T_{TO}$).
 - $G > 1.2\%$ (two-engine airplanes)
 - $G > 1.5\%$ (three-engine airplanes)
 - $G > 1.7\%$ (four-engine airplanes)
 - Flaps retracted, landing gear retracted
 - $k_s = 1.25$
 - Maximum takeoff weight

FAR 25 Requirements

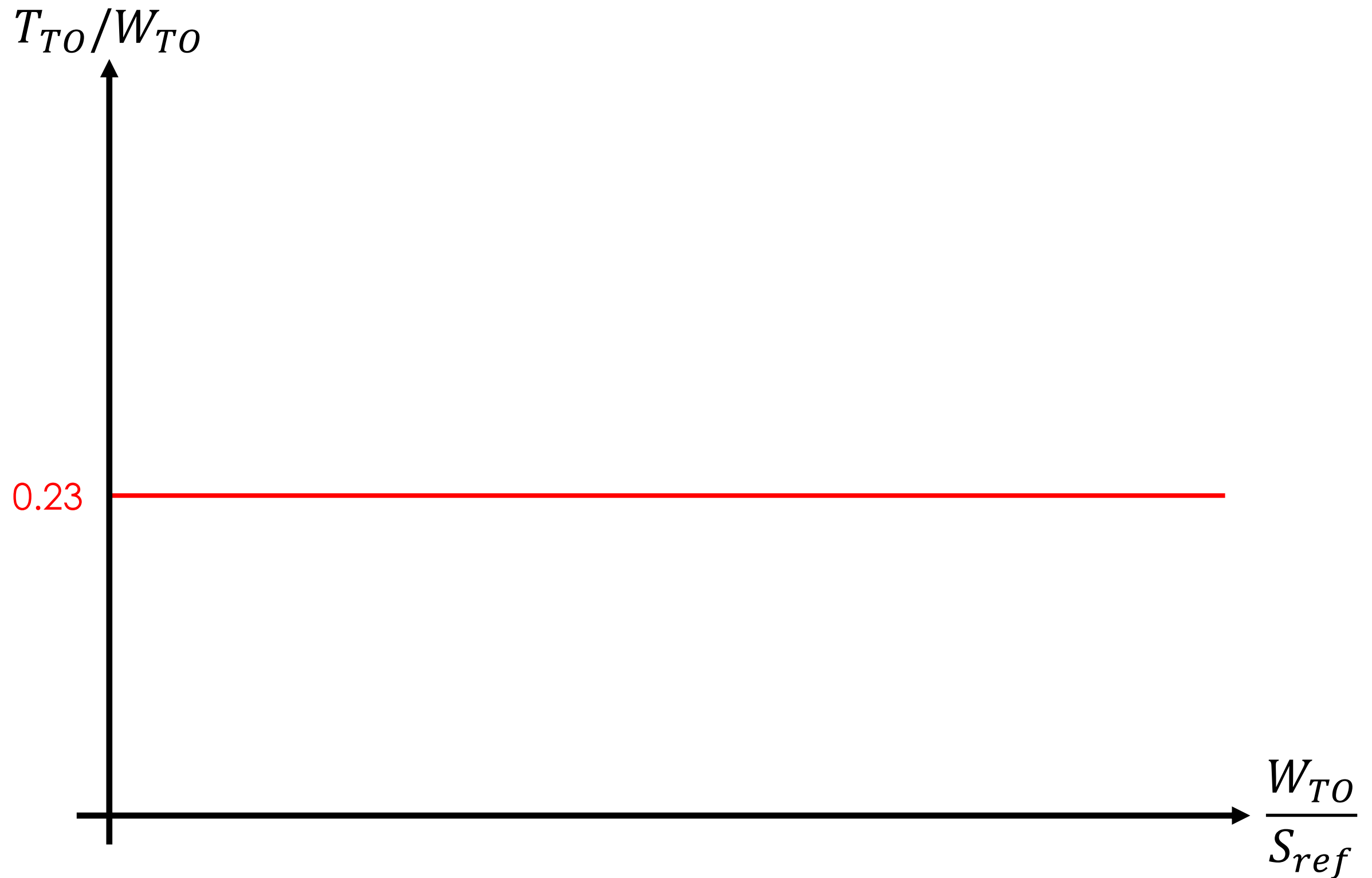
- FAR 25.119 (balked landing climb):
 - AEO (All engines operative).
 - $G > 3.2\%$
 - Landing flaps, landing gear down
 - $k_s = 1.3$
 - Maximum landing weight

FAR 25 Requirements

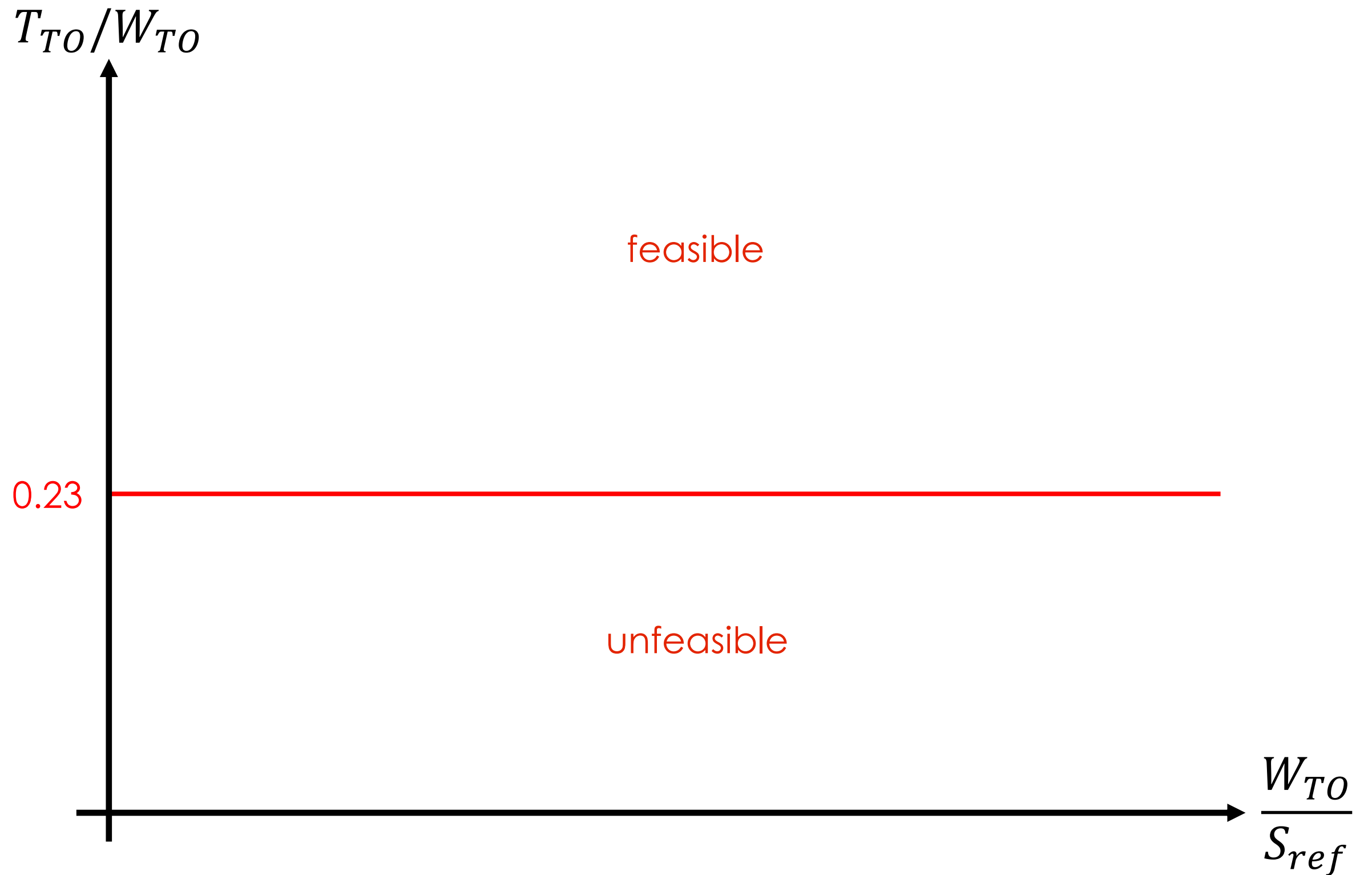
- FAR 25.121 (balked landing climb):
 - OEI (One engine inoperative). Remaining engines at takeoff thrust or power (T_{TO}).
 - $G > 2.1\%$ (two-engine airplanes)
 - $G > 2.4\%$ (three-engine airplanes)
 - $G > 2.7\%$ (four-engine airplanes)
 - Approach flaps, landing gear down
 - $k_s = 1.5$
 - Maximum landing weight

You can use $C_{Lmax,approach} \sim 0.85 C_{Lmax,L}$

Climb example



Climb example



Climb example [Roskam]

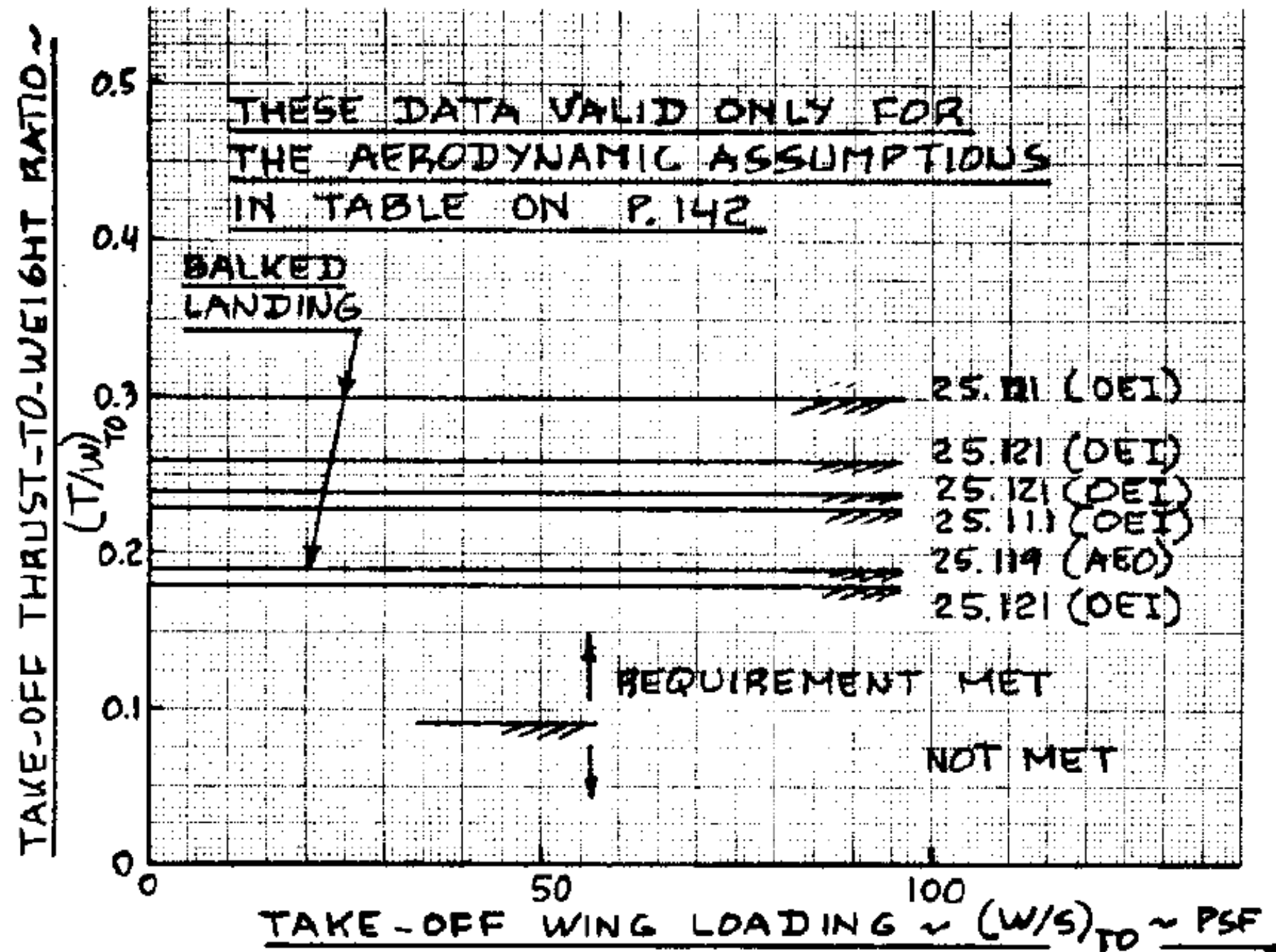


Figure 3.25 Effect of FAR 25 Climb Requirements on the Allowable Values of Take-off Thrust-to-Weight Ratio and Take-off Wing Loading

Performance Requirements

- Stall speed
- Takeoff
- Landing
- Climb
- Cruise speed
- Ceiling
- Maneuver (load factor)



Performance Requirements

- Stall speed
- Takeoff
- Landing
- Climb
- Cruise speed
- Ceiling
- Maneuver (load factor)



Cruise equations

- Assume that cruise altitude and cruise airspeed are given. We can compute the dynamic pressure as:

$$q = \frac{\rho V_{CR}^2}{2}$$

- For level flight:

$$\begin{aligned} T_{CR} &= D \\ L &= W_{CR} \end{aligned}$$

- From the lift equation:

$$L = W_{CR} \rightarrow q S C_L = W_{CR} \rightarrow C_L = \frac{1}{q} \cdot \frac{W_{CR}}{S_{ref}}$$

- Dividing the equilibrium equations:

$$\frac{T_{CR}}{W_{CR}} = \frac{D}{L} = \frac{C_D}{C_L} = \frac{C_{D0}}{C_L} + K C_L \rightarrow \boxed{\frac{T_{CR}}{W_{CR}} = \frac{q}{W_{CR}/S_{ref}} C_{D0} + \frac{W_{CR}/S_{ref}}{q} K}$$

Cruise equations

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└→ Compare this value with the one you used for the weight estimation!

Cruise corrections

- We need to adjust cruise thrust and weight.

$$\frac{W_{TO}}{S_{ref}} = \frac{1}{W_{CR}/W_{TO}} \cdot \frac{W_{CR}}{S_{ref}}$$

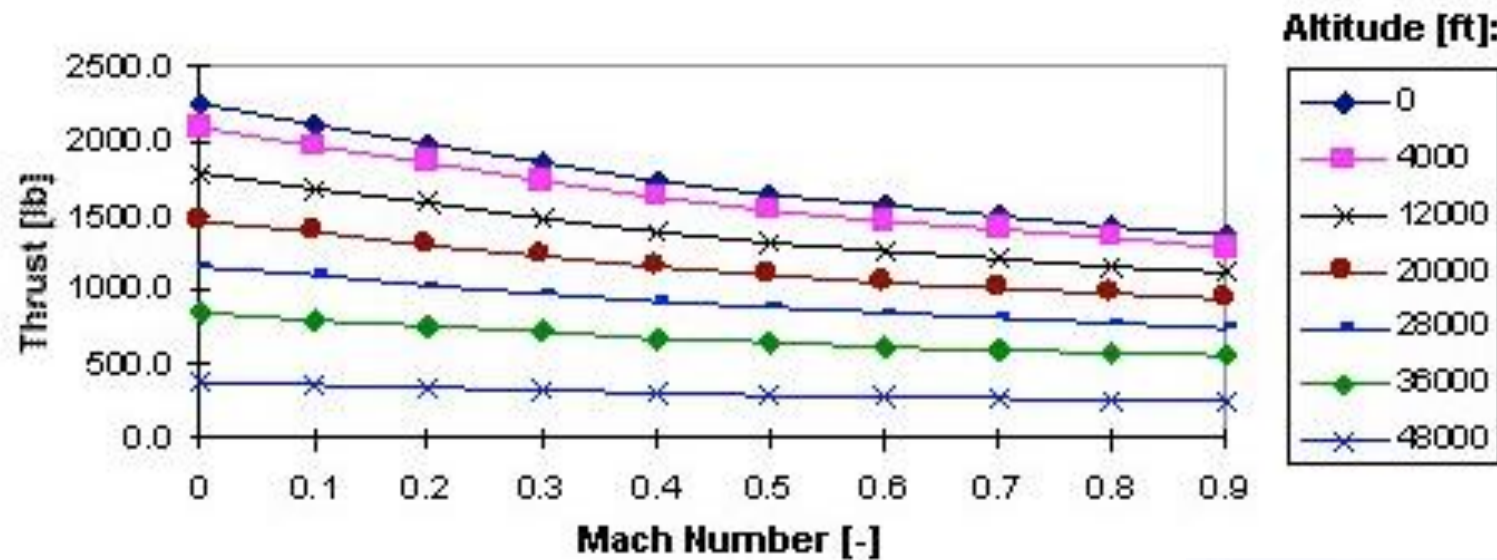
$$\frac{T_{TO}}{W_{TO}} = \frac{W_{CR}/W_{TO}}{T_{CR}/T_{TO}} \cdot \frac{T_{CR}}{W_{CR}}$$

- The weight correction comes from the fuel fractions you obtained previously.

$$\frac{W_{CR}}{W_{TO}} = \frac{W_{CL}}{W_{TO}} \cdot \frac{W_{CR}}{W_{CL}}$$

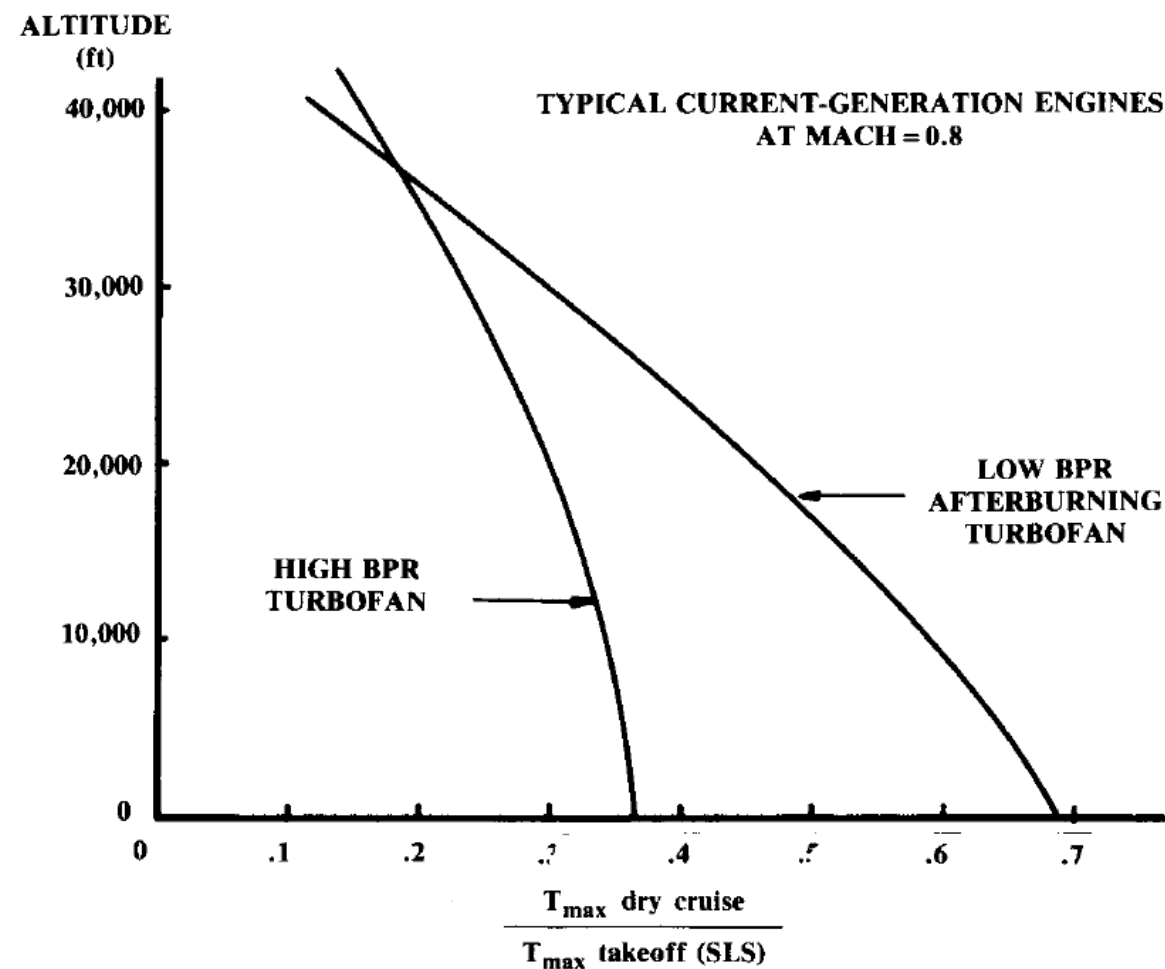
- Engine data should be used for thrust correction.

Thrust Variation with Altitude and Mach Number

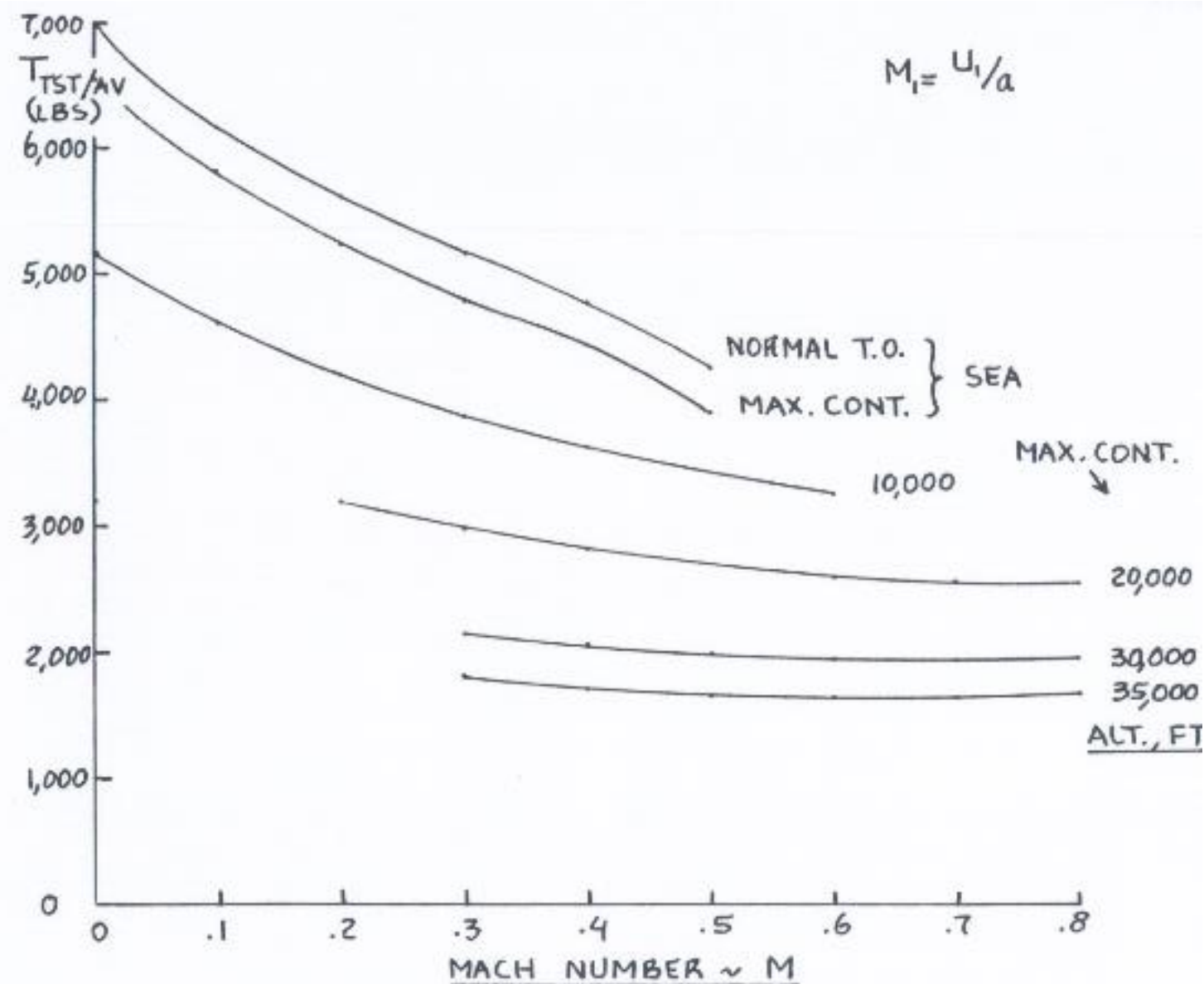


Williams FJ44-2A, from [Aerospacweb]

Generic turbofan [Roskam]

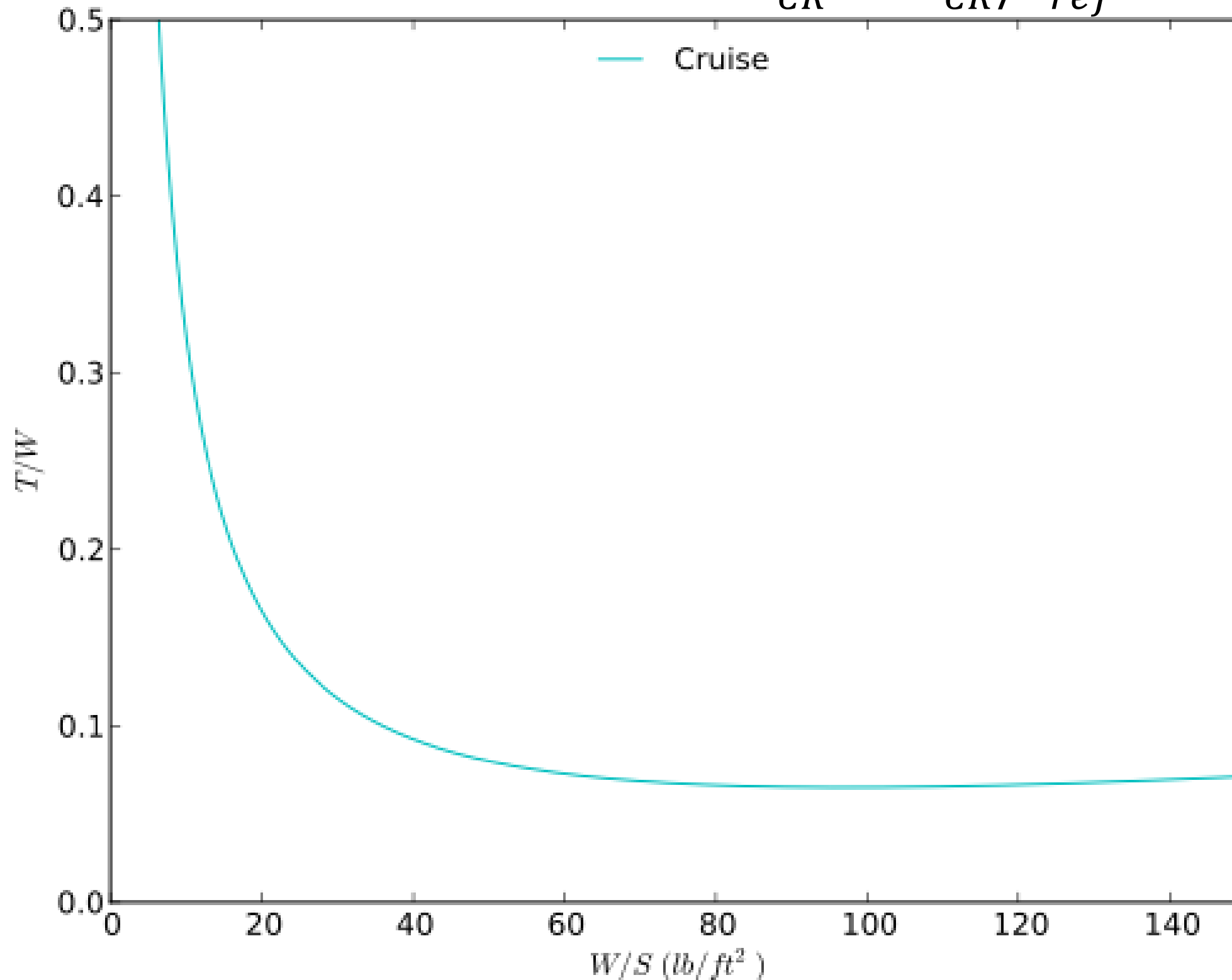


Generic turbofan [Raymer]



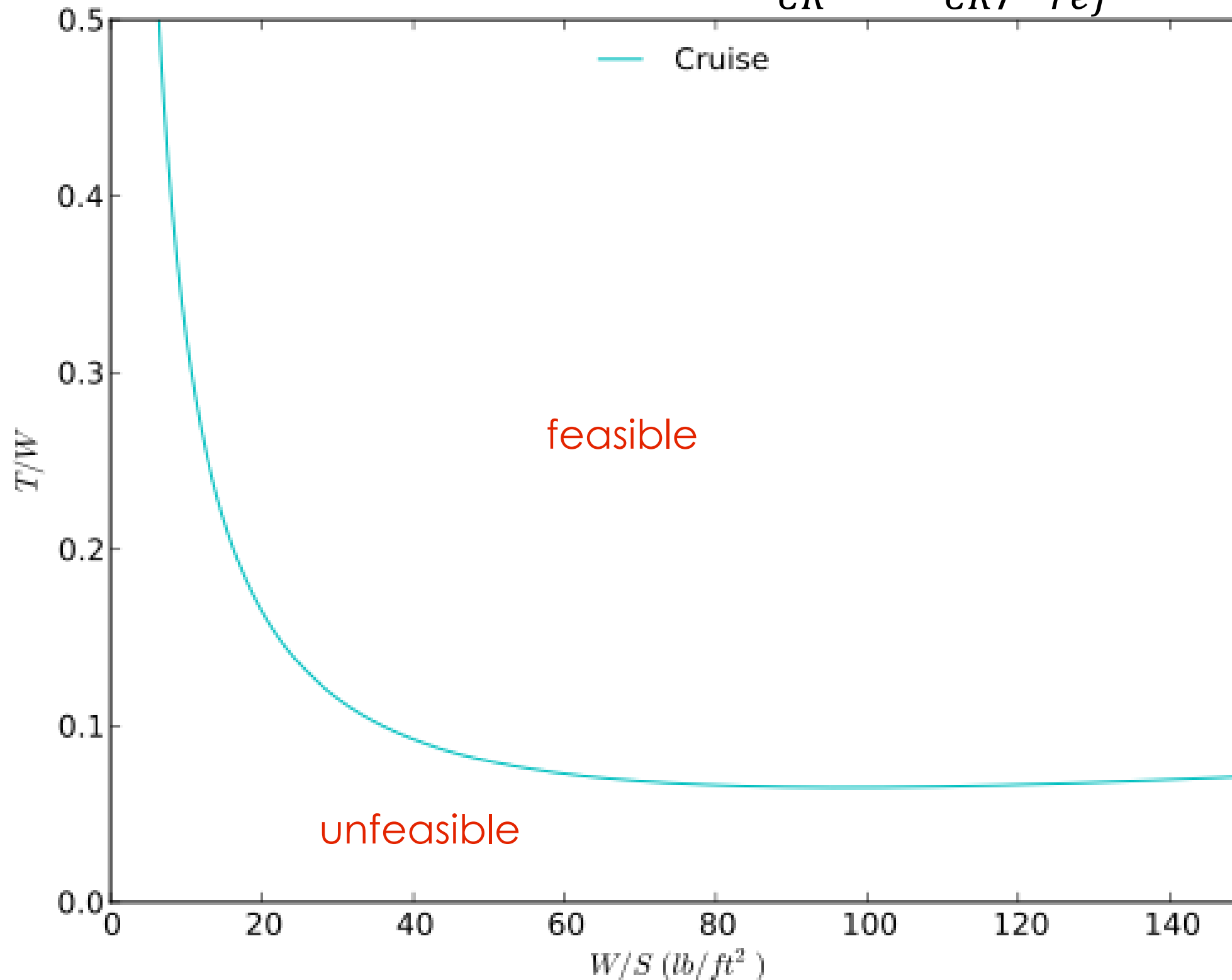
Sizing to Cruise Speed Requirements

$$\frac{T_{CR}}{W_{CR}} = \frac{q}{W_{CR}/S_{ref}} C_{D0} + \frac{W_{CR}/S_{ref}}{q} K$$



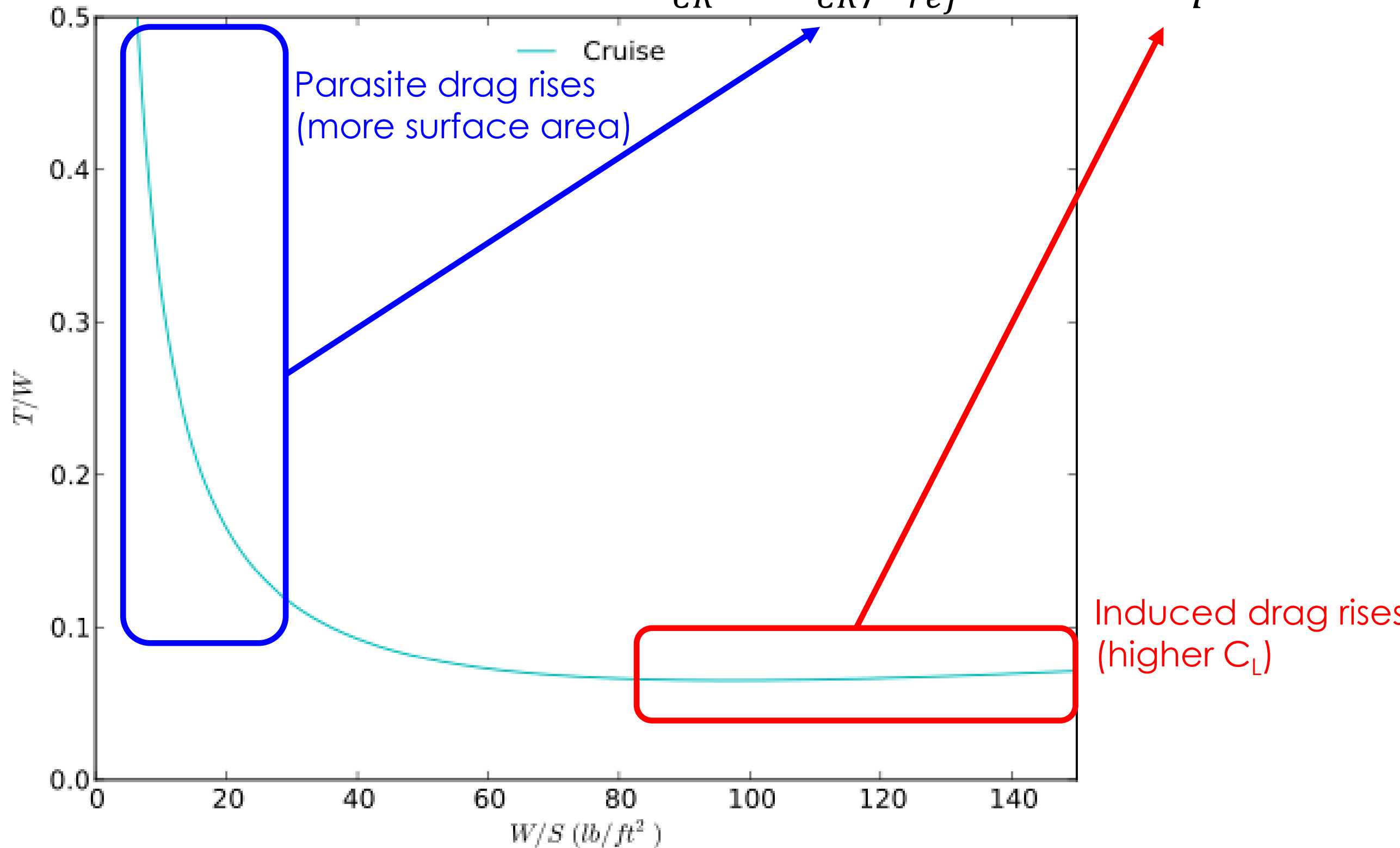
Sizing to Cruise Speed Requirements

$$\frac{T_{CR}}{W_{CR}} = \frac{q}{W_{CR}/S_{ref}} C_{D0} + \frac{W_{CR}/S_{ref}}{q} K$$



Sizing to Cruise Speed Requirements

$$\frac{T_{CR}}{W_{CR}} = \frac{q}{W_{CR}/S_{ref}} C_{D0} + \frac{W_{CR}/S_{ref}}{q} K$$



Performance Requirements

- Stall speed
- Takeoff
- Landing
- Climb
- Cruise speed
- Ceiling
- Maneuver (load factor)



Performance Requirements

- Stall speed
- Takeoff
- Landing
- Climb
- Cruise speed
- Ceiling
- Maneuver (load factor)



Ceiling equation

- Absolute ceiling is the maximum altitude that the aircraft can sustain a level flight.
- At the absolute ceiling, we have that $G=0$ (level flight). Therefore we can use the cruise results for this case too:

$$\frac{T_{CE}}{W_{CE}} = \frac{q}{W_{CE}/S_{ref}} C_{D0} + \frac{W_{CE}/S_{ref}}{q} K$$

- However, we can select an airspeed that minimizes the thrust requirement. If you derive the equation above with respect to dynamic pressure you will get the following optimum:

$$q = \frac{W_{CE}}{S_{ref}} \sqrt{\frac{K}{C_{D0}}}$$

Ceiling equation

- If we substitute the dynamic pressure back into the first equation we get:

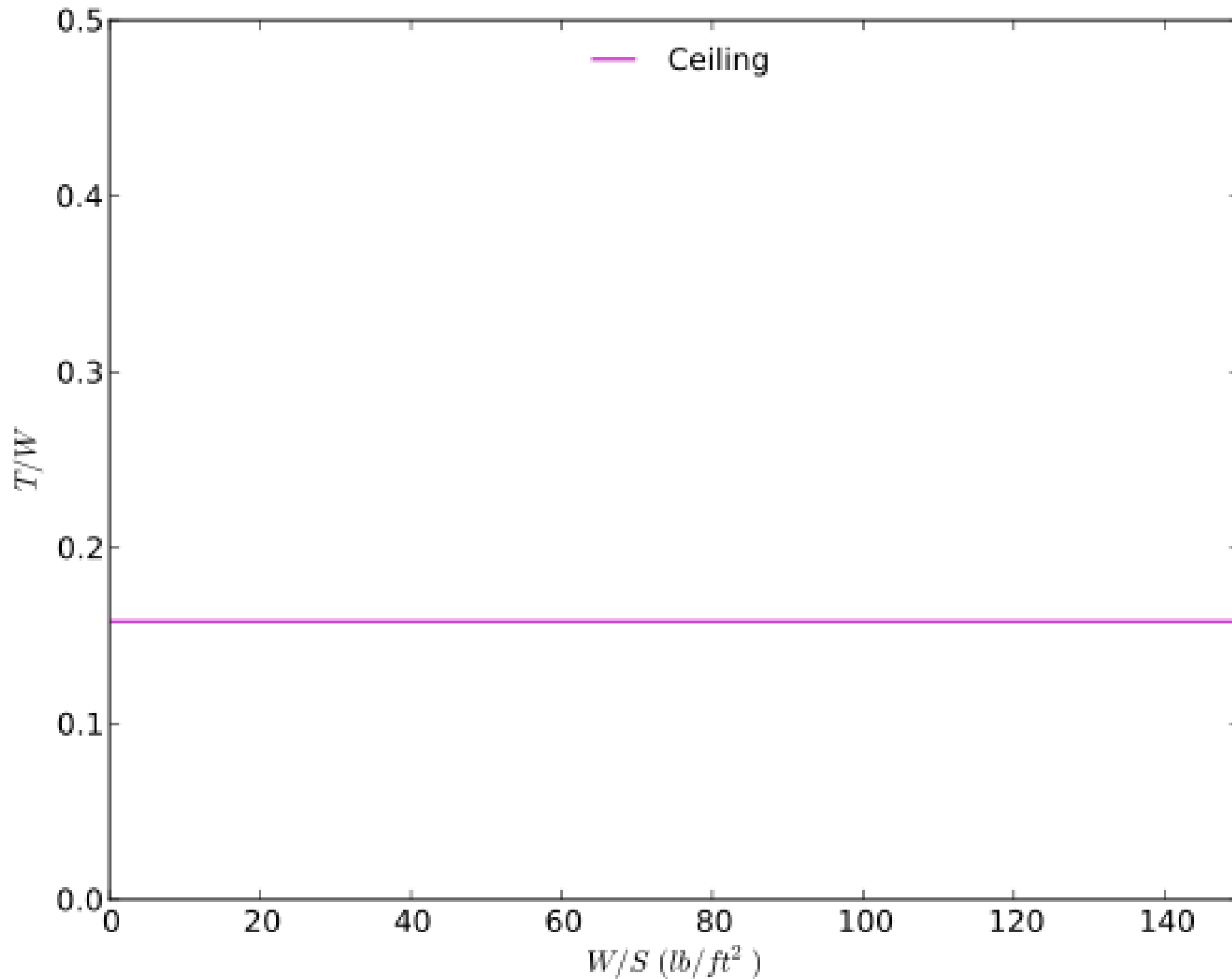
$$\frac{T_{CE}}{W_{CE}} = 2\sqrt{C_{D0} \cdot K}$$

- You may want to keep a small climb gradient ($G=0.001$) as a safety margin. Otherwise, it may be difficult to even reach the desired ceiling. In this case the equation becomes:

$$\frac{T_{CE}}{W_{CE}} = G + 2\sqrt{C_{D0} \cdot K}$$

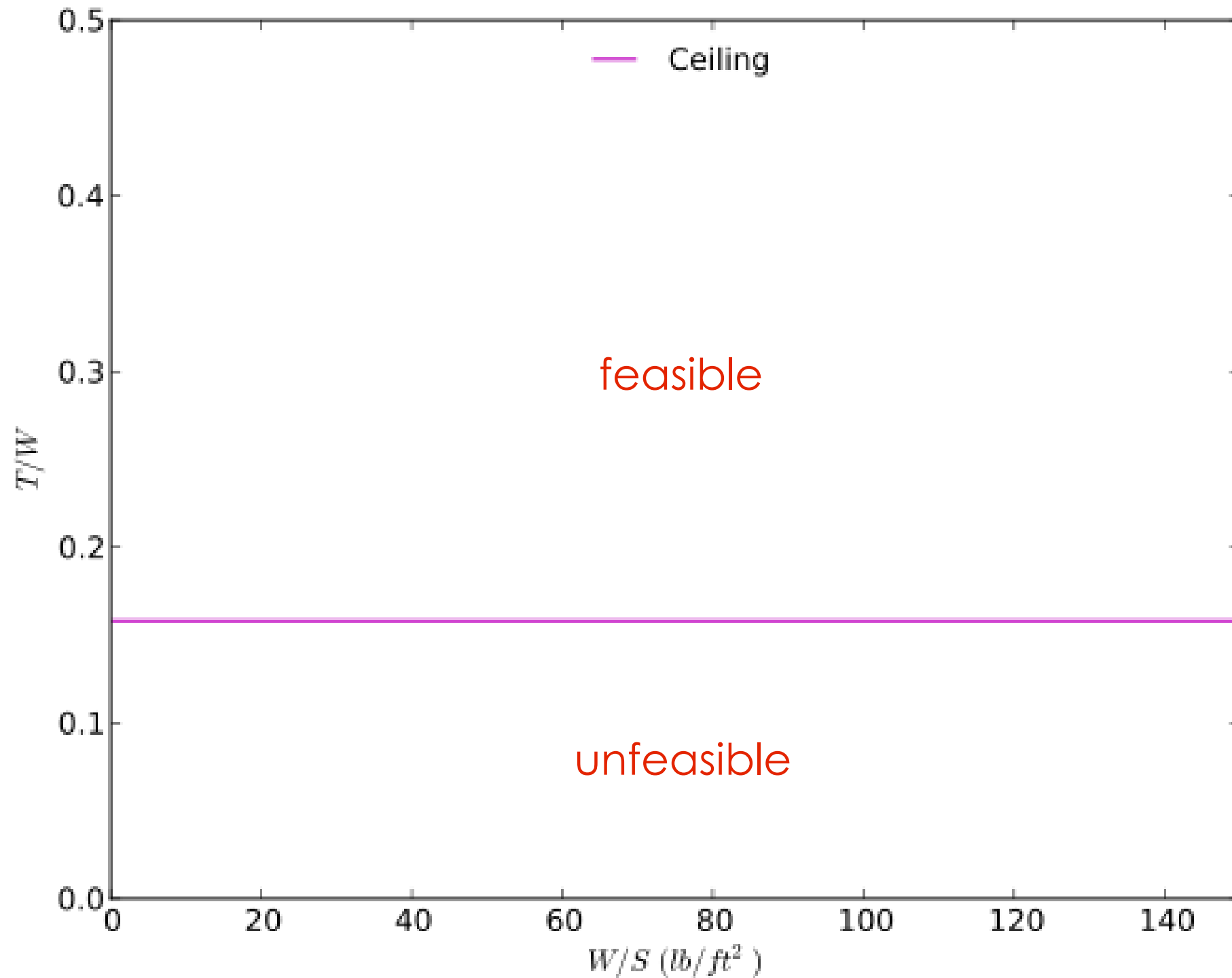
Sizing to Ceiling Requirements

$$\frac{T_{CE}}{W_{CE}} = G + 2\sqrt{C_{D0} \cdot K}$$



Sizing to Ceiling Requirements

$$\frac{T_{CE}}{W_{CE}} = G + 2\sqrt{C_{D0} \cdot K}$$



Performance Requirements

- Stall speed
- Takeoff
- Landing
- Climb
- Cruise speed
- Ceiling
- Maneuver (load factor)



Performance Requirements

- Stall speed
- Takeoff
- Landing
- Climb
- Cruise speed
- Ceiling
- Maneuver (load factor)



Maneuver (load factor)

- Load factor is approximated as:

$$n_z = \frac{L}{W_M}$$

- The maneuver equations are:

$$T_{MN} = D$$
$$L = n_z W_{MN}$$

- If we use the same procedures used for cruise we get:

$$\frac{T_{MN}}{W_{MN}} = \frac{q}{W_{MN}/S_{ref}} C_{D0} + n_z^2 \frac{W_{MN}/S_{ref}}{q} K$$

- It is important to check if the airplane is not exceeding its aerodynamic limit:

$$C_L = \frac{n_z}{q} \cdot \frac{W_{MN}}{S_{ref}} < C_{Lmax,MN}$$

Maneuver (load factor)

- During a sustained turn, the aircraft should maintain its airspeed and altitude. If the sustained turn rate $\dot{\psi}$ is given, we can compute the corresponding load factor:

$$n_z = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\dot{\psi}V}{g}\right)^2 + 1}$$

- If we have an instantaneous turn requirement, we can neglect the thrust-drag equation. The aircraft will be limited by its maximum lift capability in this case. Using the lift-weight equation for maximum C_L gives:

$$\frac{W_{MN}}{S_{ref}} = \frac{q C_{Lmax,MN}}{n_z}$$

Performance Requirements

- Stall speed
- Takeoff
- Landing
- Climb
- Cruise speed
- Ceiling
- Maneuver (load factor)



Takeaways

- Higher wing-loading (i.e. smaller wing) means

- Higher stall speed (bad)
- Longer take-off and landing distances (bad)
- Poorer maneuvering performance (bad)
- Reduced drag, weight and cost (very, very good)

Typically, smallest wing (i.e. highest wing loading) that meets the requirements is best

- Higher thrust-to-weight ratio (i.e. bigger engine) means:

- Better takeoff, climb, and cruise performance (good)
- Higher engine weight (bad)
- Higher engine cost and fuel consumption (very, very bad)

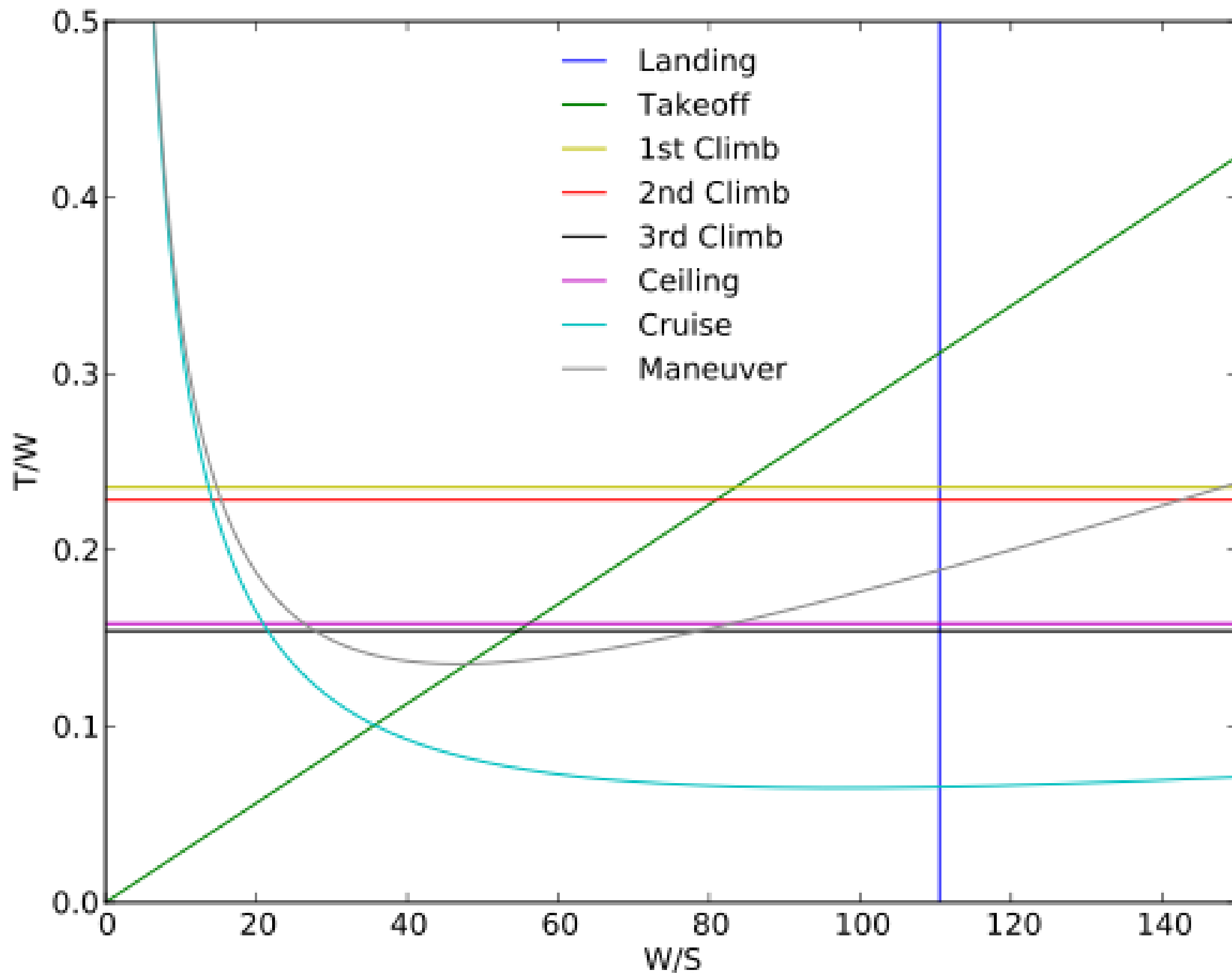
Typically, smallest engine (i.e. lowest T/W) that does the job is best

Matching all the results

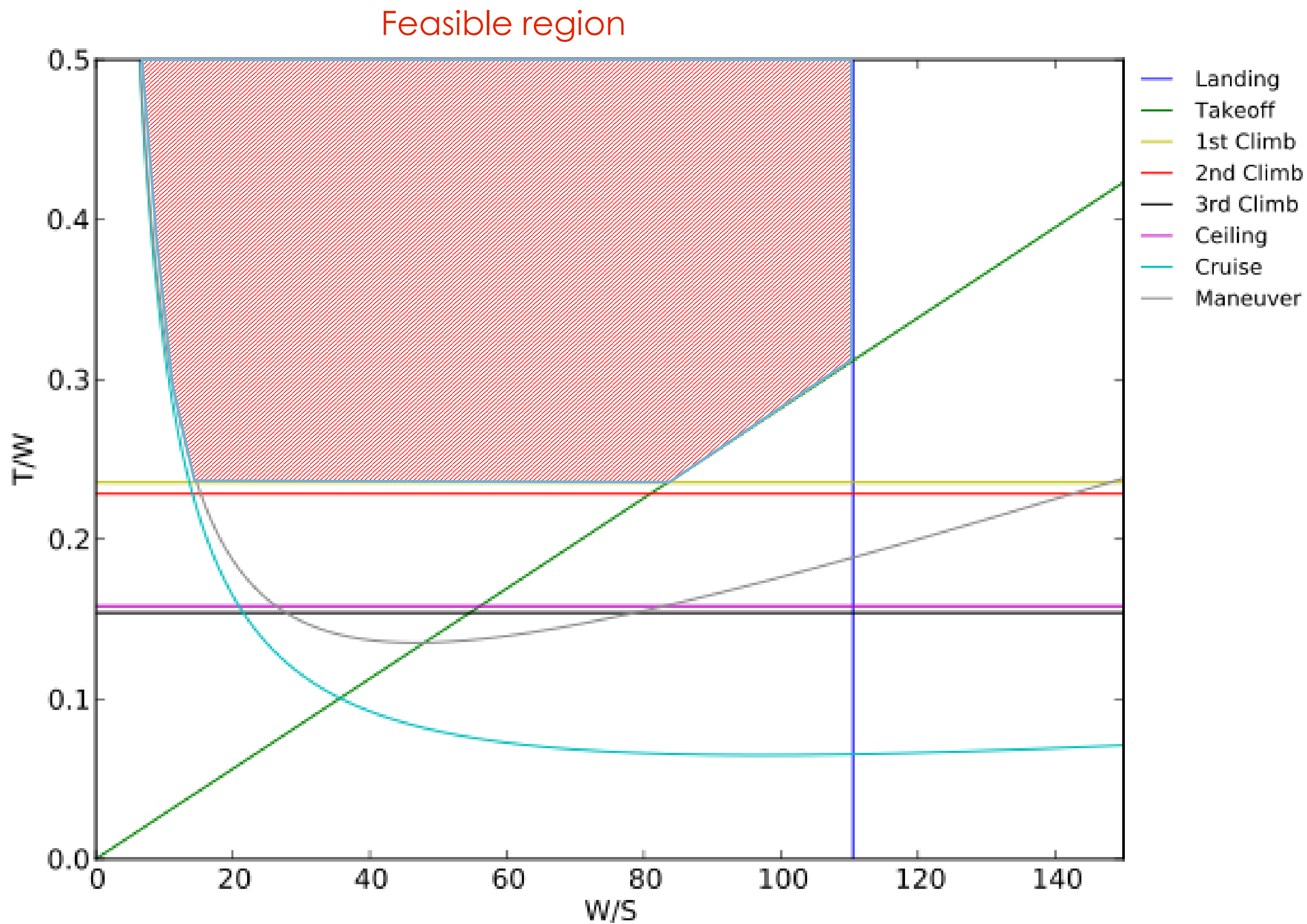
1. Specify a range of wing loading at takeoff condition (W_{TO}/S_{ref}).
2. For each mission requirement:
 1. Apply correction factors to the takeoff wing loading to reflect weight changes, if necessary.
 2. Use the requirement equations to get the corresponding thrust-to-weight ratio.
 3. Apply corrections to the thrust-to-weight ratio to take it back to takeoff condition.
3. Plot the results in a W/S x T/W chart.
4. Identify feasible region.

Some requirements depend only on T/W or W/S (e.g. climb or stall speed), so you only need to compute one value and draw a straight line.

Example

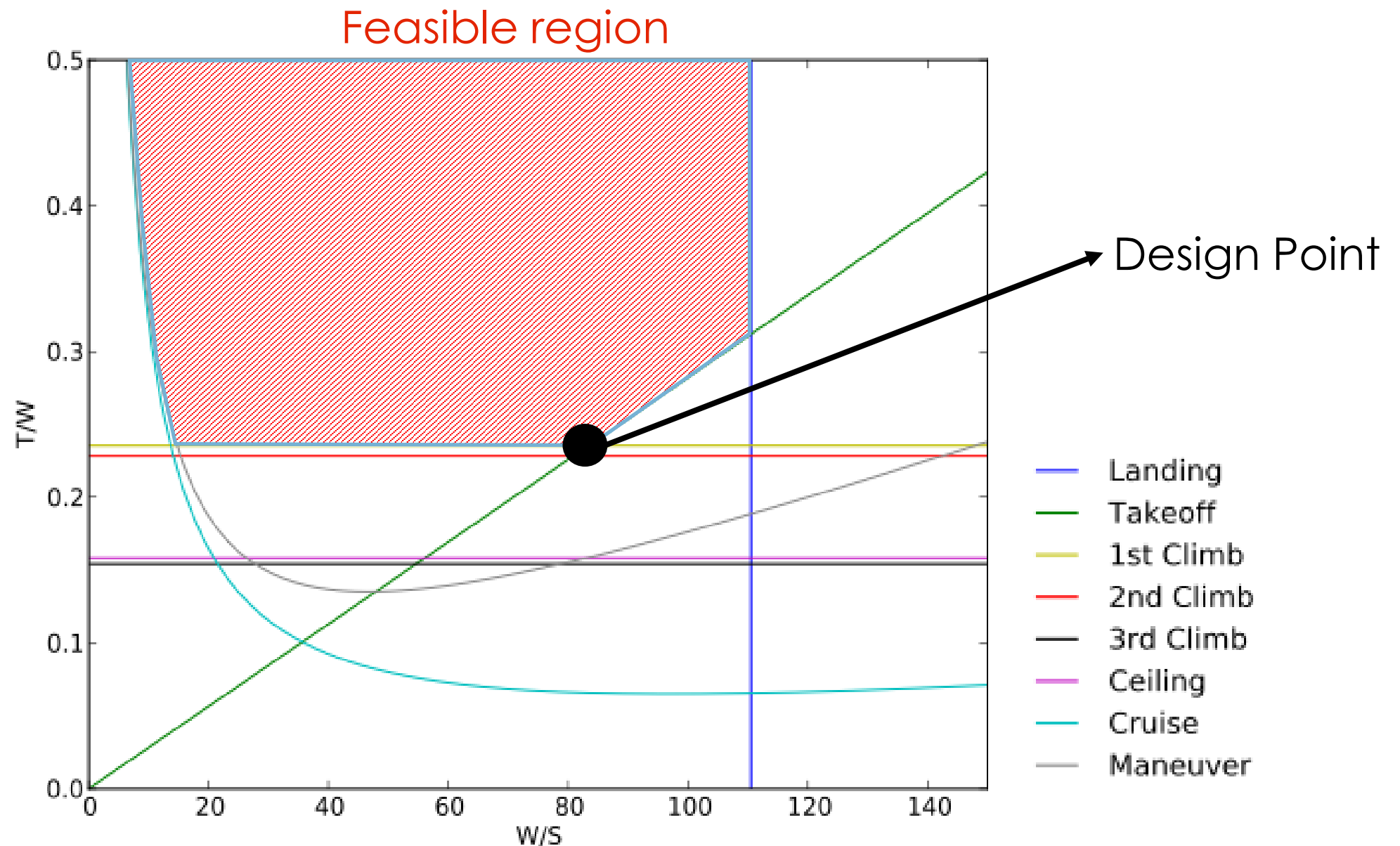


Example



Selecting a Design Point

- You usually want the lowest T/W (smaller engine) and the greatest W/S (smaller airplane) within the feasible region.



Sizing airplane and engine

- Now that we have the values of wing loading and thrust-to-weight ratio, we can finally compute the reference area and the engine thrust for our airplane:

$$S_{ref} = \frac{W_{TO}}{W_{TO}/S_{ref}}$$

$$T_{TO} = W_{TO} \cdot \frac{T_{TO}}{W_{TO}}$$

Examples

Which one has a higher W/S?



Canada goose

Pelican



Which one has a higher W/S?



Canada goose
5.8 lb/ft²

Pelican
1.3 lb/ft²



Which one has a higher W/S?



Cessna 152

B747-400



Which one has a higher W/S?



Cessna 152
10 lb/ft²

B747-400
151 lb/ft²



Which one has the lowest W/S?

Transall C-160
(Utility transport)



F-104G Starfighter
(Supersonic interceptor)



F-15C Eagle
(Air superiority)

Which one has the lowest W/S?

Transall C-160
(Utility transport)
65 lb/ft²



F-104G Starfighter
(Supersonic interceptor)
148 lb/ft²



F-15C Eagle
(Air superiority)
111 lb/ft²

Which one has a higher T/W?

B787
(Jet transport)



F-22
(Fighter)



Which one has a higher T/W?

B787
(Jet transport)



$T/W=0.28$

F-22
(Fighter)



$T/W=1.14$

Which one has a higher T/W?

BAe-146
(Regional Transport)



E-190
(Regional Transport)



Which one has a higher T/W?

BAe-146
(Regional Transport)



$T/W=0.30$

E-190
(Regional Transport)



$T/W=0.35$

More engines → OEI conditions may become easier

Which one has a higher T/W?

Concorde



B767-300



Which one has a higher T/W?

Concorde



$T/W=0.37$

B767-300



$T/W=0.28$

Cruise speed requirement
Aerodynamic efficiency

Direct Operating Cost (DOC)

- Figure of merit for transport airplanes.
 - Cost/Distance or $\text{Cost}/(\text{PAX} \cdot \text{Distance})$.
- Method developed by Mentzer and Nourse of United Airlines (1944) and improved by ATA (Air Transport Association of America) in 1967.
- Roskam updated the method for 1989's costs.

Direct Operating Cost Breakdown

- Flying
 - Crew, Fuel, and Insurance
- Maintenance
 - Labor Cost and Spare Parts
- Depreciation
 - Airframe, Engine, and Systems
- Landing and Navigation Fees
- Financing

Important factors for DOC estimation

- Weights

- MTOW, Fuel Weight, Empty Weight

- Engine

- Thrust, Weight

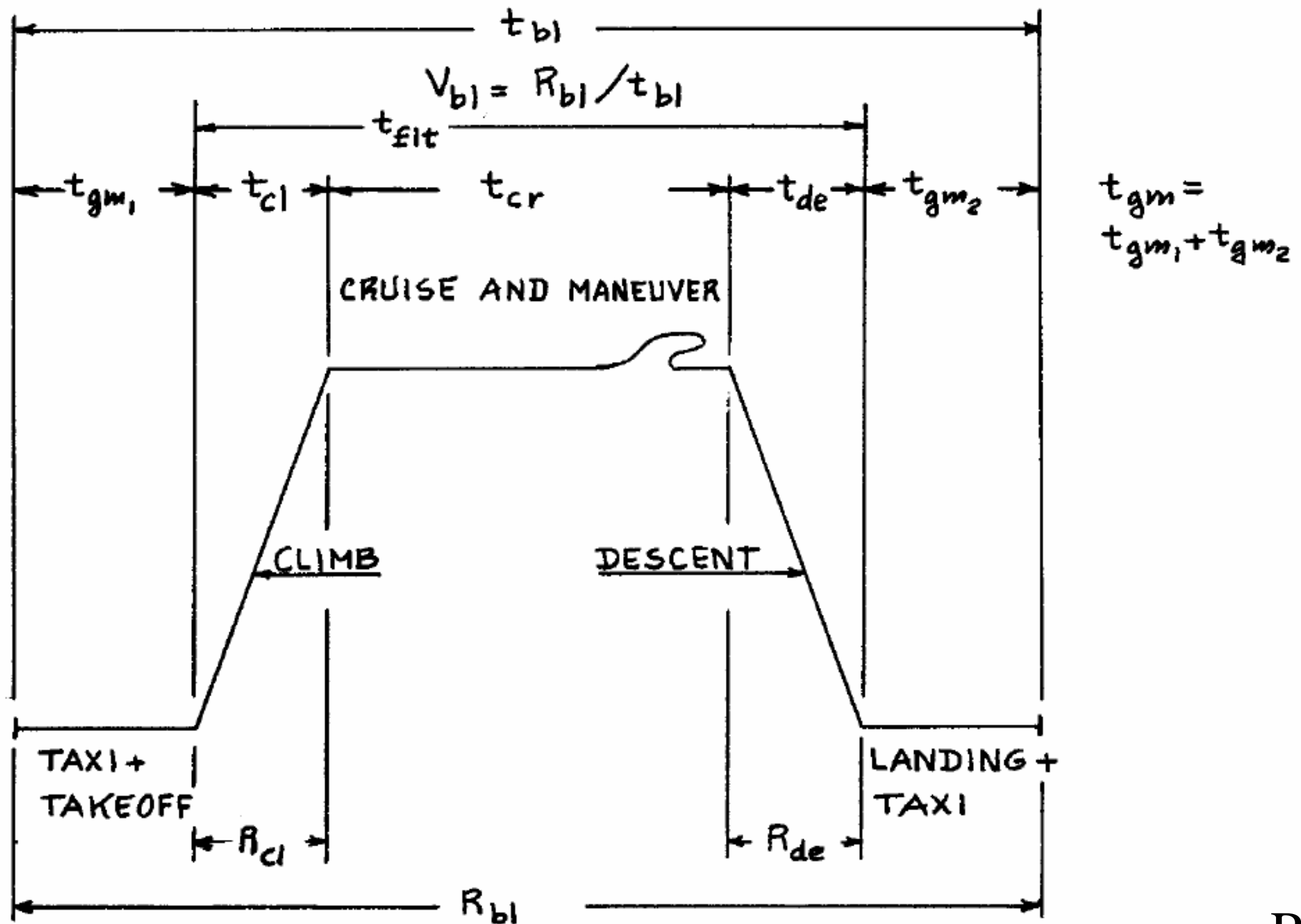
- Prices

- Fuel Price, Labor Cost

- Mission Profile

- Block time, Block range

Mission Profile



Examples

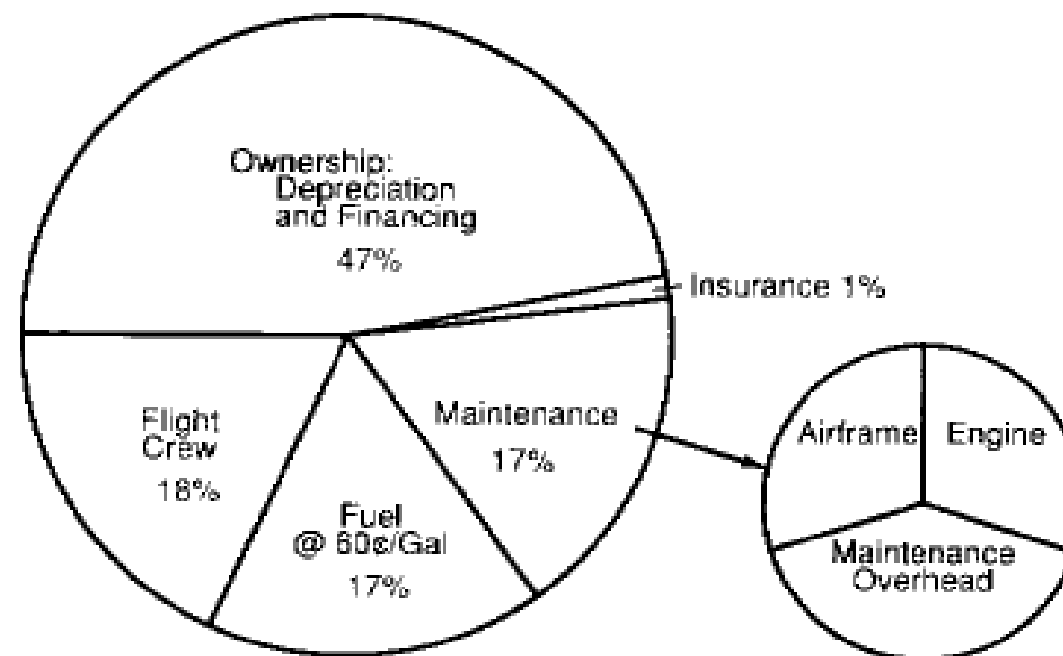
Direct Operating Cost Comparison In Year 2000 \$

Airplane (passengers)	DOC (ct/seat n.mi)	\$/n.mi.
MD-81 at 500 n.mi.	6.15	8.79
MD-11 at 3000 n.mi.	5.81	17.03
747-400 at 3000 n.mi.	5.43	22.58

737-300

500 nmi

Direct Operating Cost U. S. Domestic Rules



Tarefa

- Seções 3.7 e 3.8 do roteiro